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ABSTRACT

Information in this guide is based on published research concerning effective strategies in dealing with at-risk youth. It was written for those communities invited to develop proposals under the Annie E. Casey Foundation's New Futures Initiative in an attempt to alleviate problems that compromise American children's futures. Each of three chapters is divided into four subsections. Chapter 1 gives an overview of national measures and trends of at-risk youth, describing and analyzing local problems as well as assessing current community problems. Two figures identify measures to describe local problems and outline sample programs and policies. In chapter 2, effective approaches for improving achievement and reducing dropouts, preventing teen pregnancies, finding youth employment, and creating a case management system are described. Chapter 3 delineates the community planning process, lead agency designation, data requirements and goal setting, and budget development in the new futures process. Figures 1, 2, and 3 define dropouts, graduates, and tell how to calculate average daily attendance. Four appendices give program descriptions and contact information about education reform and dropout prevention (21 sources), teenage pregnancy prevention (13 sources), youth employment (9 sources), and youth case management (3 sources). Three papers are included: (1) "The Role of Child Care in the New Futures Initiative" (Ready, Bucher, Escobedo, and Vendig); (2) "The Role of Incentives in Programs to Help At-Risk Youth" (Meyer); and (3) "New Futures State Policy Paper" (Powell). (EJS)

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THE ANNIE E. CASEY FOUNDATION'S

NEW FUTURES INITIATIVE:
STRATEGIC PLANNING GUIDE

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Appendix A: Education Reform and Dropout Prevention Program Descriptions

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The following materials were added to the Guide during the July 1987 - January 1988 New Futures planning process, and were sent to the ten cities preparing plans.

"The Role of Child Care in the New Futures Initiative"
By Karole Ready
With: Mary Bucher
Laura Escobedo
Stephanie Vendig
Edited by Bea Gold
Children, Youth & Family Services
Los Angeles, CA

"The Role of Incentives in Programs to Help At-Risk Youth"
By Jack A. Meyer
New Directions For Policy
Washington, D.C.

"New Futures State Policy Paper"
By Mary Ellen Powell
(then) Program Director of Training & Employment Network
Hartford, CT

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We hasten to add that none of these individuals are responsible for the errors, omissions or mistaken judgments that, despite their efforts, may remain in these pages. Ownership of those rest entirely with the authors.

PREFACE

This Guide has been written for those communities that have been invited to develop proposals under The Annie E. Casey Foundation's New Futures initiative. It contains no easy answers, sure-fire interventions or finished blueprints for meeting the needs of at-risk youth. It is not even a manual of "best practices" in the usual sense of that term.

The fact is there are no remedies guaranteed to solve the complex constellation of problems that compromise the futures of too many American children and youth. Despite mounting public interest, thousands of local programs, hundreds of special projects, and scores of studied demonstrations, no comprehensive, convincing and detailed model has yet emerged for wholesale replication. Even those few interventions which have earned reputations for insight and effectiveness have only very recently been subjected to careful description and analysis, and virtually none of them has been tested by long-term evaluation. Moreover, none has been assessed as part of a community-wide effort as envisioned in New Futures. This is not to say that nothing can be learned from what has been tried and written; indeed, a great deal can. But the lessons so far provide more a framework for problem analysis and policy development than a blueprint for every community to build on.

These realities of the state of the art provide the context for the design and use of this Guide. Its primary purpose is to provide New Futures candidate cities with a body of advice, cautions, and selected program descriptions that are hopefully useful as they undertake the challenge of designing a comprehensive community assault on the problems of dropouts, academic under-achievement, teen pregnancy and youth unemployment.

Some of the information contained in this Guide is based on published research concerning what programmatic strategies seem to be most effective with at-risk youth; however, as noted above, this evidence is both scarce and limited. Consequently, much of the information in this Guide reflects the Foundation's own beliefs about the best approaches to the problems of at-risk youth. In many areas, the Foundation has benefited from the perceptions, insight and experience of the hundreds of local actors -- superintendents, teachers, service providers, clergy, employers, advocates -- whom Foundation staff interviewed over the last eight months in the course of its on-site reviews of cities considered for participation in the New Futures initiative. If some of the readers sense that particular perspectives or suggestions included here parallel their own, it is probably not an accident. To them, the Foundation is particularly grateful.

This last point deserves special emphasis. From the outset, the New Futures program has been predicated on the conviction that complete answers to the multiple needs of at-risk youth do not yet exist -- they have to be found. The whole intent of the New Futures strategy is to help some committed and capable American communities help themselves, their states and the nation begin to find those answers.

The Foundation's role is to provide the occasion, the opportunity, some of the resources, and an informed strategic framework for that challenging endeavor. If the cities are successful, the Guide that can be written after the New Futures initiative should be less tentative and far easier to recommend to a broad audience than this one.

The Guide is organized into three general chapters, each divided into sub-sections. These chapters correspond to the activities the Foundation expects candidate communities to follow as they develop their plans for a local New Futures initiative. In the first chapter, "Describing and Analyzing the Problem," the Guide describes important planning tasks that candidate sites must undertake before designing any new interventions. The second chapter, "Designing More Effective Approaches," describes the kinds of programmatic strategies that are likely to help at-risk youth mature into productive and successful adults. And finally, Chapter III, "The New Futures Process," offers guidance on the planning process, administrative structures and information systems mechanisms needed to launch and sustain a successful local initiative.

These materials were selected and sequenced with the immediate purpose of assisting candidate communities to respond to the New Futures proposal format. Wherever practical, we have tried to clarify the terminology, expectations and requirements set forth in the "Application Instructions" that each community will be using during the proposal development phase.

Finally, the Guide is designed to serve as a working tool. Throughout the course of the proposal development phase and beyond, the Foundation will periodically provide participating communities with new resource and reference materials to be added to the Guide. Candidate communities are encouraged to identify areas and issues where more information or background material would be particularly helpful. The Foundation also urges community leaders to share any relevant information or promising practices with the Foundation so these can be added to this Guide as it is updated.

CHAPTER I

Describing and Analyzing the Problem

A. An Overview of America's At-Risk Youth Problems: Some National Measures and Trends

B. Describing At-Risk Youth Problems at the Local Level

C. Analyzing Local Youth Problems

D. Assessing Current Community Responses to At-Risk Youth

CHAPTER I: DESCRIBING AND ANALYZING THE PROBLEM

A. An Overview of America's At-Risk Youth Problems: Some National Measures and Trends

The failure of an alarming portion of American children to grow up as successful and productive adults is a problem that resists easy generalization or simple summary. No single index exists to gauge the scope of the problem. Instead, we try to measure it by counting "symptoms" or "events" in young lives, which, when added up, give us a proxy for the number of youthful "futures" that are each year being foreclosed. Some of the most useful of these indicators appear to be: dropout rates, the rate of youth unemployment and inactivity, and the incidence of teen pregnancy and childbearing. In the succeeding pages, these measures are used to provide a profile of the nation's youth crisis. The Foundation believes these measures offer a useful starting point for communities seeking to define the needs and risks confronting their own young people.

Dropouts and Youth Unemployment

It is estimated that about one-quarter of the American children who enter high school this year will leave before graduating. This translates into approximately 900,000 new dropouts each year. That 25 percent dropout rate has actually changed very little since the mid-1960s. Before that, of course, it was much higher. In 1900, only one in ten stayed in school until graduation, and as late as 1930, the dropout rate exceeded 50 percent.[1]

While the lack of recent progress in bringing down the dropout rate is itself a cause for serious concern, even more

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[1] Michael W. Sherraden, "School Dropouts in Perspective," prepared for the Business Advisory Committee, Education Commision of the States, March 1985.

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alarming is the increasingly negative lifetime consequences that are attached to dropping out. Unlike 30 and 40 years ago when many students left school to begin a steady job, today almost three-quarters of all dropouts are leaving without any reliable prospect for employment and self-sufficiency. Of course, some of these dropouts find their way into the world of work and adult responsibilities, and some sooner or later re-enter school and graduate. But -- and this is the key issue -- a significant number of these youth appear to be the principal contributors to a growing population of idle, disconnected teens, who are out of school, out of work and, frequently, out of hope.

The growth of this group of special problem dropouts is best measured by what is known as the "inactivity rate," that is, the number of youth aged 16 through 19 who are neither in school nor in the military nor employed relative to their population. As recently as 1978, the inactivity rate for white male teens was 8.3 percent; by 1983, it had climbed to 17.6 percent. For white female teens, it rose from 17.8 percent to 24.2 percent. Even more serious has been the trend among black youth. Just under 17 percent of the black males aged 16 through 19 were "inactive" in 1978; by 1983, the rate was 34 percent. For black females, the number jumped from 34 percent to 48 percent.[2] Translated into real numbers, these statistics indicate that during 1983, 3.44 million American youth in this age group (2.5 million whites and almost one million blacks) spent at least some of the year unconnected to school, jobs or the military.

The Foundation believes that this growth in the ranks of inactive teens constitutes one of the most disturbing measures of the youth crisis in this country. It is these young people for whom shortened education and lack of work experience have the most lasting and negative consequences. For many of them, it is but the first phase of a life of chronic unemployment and substantially reduced earnings potential. These idle youth are also the most likely to become criminals, alcohol and drug abusers, unwed parents, and/or dependent on public assistance. In short, the increasing numbers of ill-educated and unproductive youth represent not only individual disadvantage, but large and long term social costs as well.

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[2] Charles L. Betsey, Robinson G. Hollister, Jr., and Mary Papageorgiou, editors. Youth Employment and Training Programs: The YEDPA Years, National Research Council, Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1985.

Determining why an increasing number of young people are failing to be absorbed into the economic and social mainstream is not a simple question. Some of the forces that may be at the root of the problem include macro-economic trends. In recent years when unemployment has been high, even adult workers who have had an attachment to the labor force are out of work. In such a climate, youth are even more likely to remain unemployed as there is increased competition for certain types of low skill, entry level jobs that have historically absorbed less educated and less skilled young workers. For example, in the mid-1960s, according to one labor market analyst, there were 2.5 job seekers for every available job; by the end of the 1970s, the ratio had climbed to five competitors for each available opening.[3]

This increased competition for jobs, of course, falls hardest on those youth with the least ability to compete: that is, high school dropouts, youth without work experience, those with limited literacy skills, those without contacts or role models in the work world and those who continue to be victims of racial or ethnic discrimination by prospective employers. Not surprisingly, analysts find the youth inactivity problem to be most heavily concentrated among school dropouts living in minority inner-city neighborhoods and among less educated young people of all races in other economically disadvantaged areas.[4]

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[3] Katherine G. Abraham, "Structural/Frictional vs. Deficient Demand Unemployment: Some New Evidence," American Economic Review, Volume 73, September 1983.

The correlation found between the failure to graduate and the subsequent failure to find a place in the workforce suggests that effective solutions to the youth unemployment problem have to begin with an understanding of and a response to the dropout problem. Researchers have found that a variety of factors influence dropout rates. Demographic characteristics such as low income status, being a language minority, low parental education levels, and high teenage pregnancy rates have all been correlated with increased risk of dropping out.[5] So too have personal factors, such as learning disability, the presence of family stress, emotional or drug abuse problems, or simply the possession of less academic aptitude. A history of school failure (as measured by low grades and retention for example) has been found to be the single most common predictor and characteristic of high school dropouts.

It is perhaps most important to note, however, that dropout rates are not exclusively a function of either the overall state of the economy or the background and circumstances of students. A growing body of research indicates that schools themselves vary dramatically in their ability to accommodate and respond to youth at risk of dropping out.[6] For example, school policies and practices that convey to less proficient students (through teacher indifference, peer labeling, or lack of positive reinforcement) that they are sub-standard or incompetent tend to encourage them to escape such messages -- first by devaluing school and then by avoiding it altogether. This "push-out" effect is most visible in schools which rely heavily on suspension sanctions, grade level retention, or highly competitive measures for tracking, promotion and graduation. High dropout rates also appear to be found in schools that de-emphasize individualized instruction and special attention to troubled children as well as in those that make no special effort to respond to the values and needs of language or ethnic minority students. In short, the way schools themselves are run, staffed, financed, and managed may be as much a determinant of dropout rates as the characteristics of the students who attend them.

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[4] Diane N. Wescott, "The Nation's Youth: An Employment Perspective," Children and Youth Services Review, Volume 1, Number 1, Spring 1979, pp. 87-100; Andrew Hahn and Robert Lerman, "What Works In Youth Employment Policy?," Committee on New American Realities, Washington, D.C., 1985; William H. McCarthy, et. al., Reducing Urban Unemployment: What Works At The Local Level, National League of Cities, October 1985.

[5] Michael W. Sherraden, "School Dropouts in Perspective," prepared for the Business Advisory Committee, Education Commission of the States, March 1985; Samuel S. Peng, "High School Dropouts: Descriptive Information from High School and Beyond (HS&B)," National Center for Education Statistics: Washington, D.C., November 1983; Samuel S. Peng, High School Dropouts: A National Concern, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, prepared for the Business Advisory Commission, Education Commission of the States, March 1985.

Teen Pregnancy

Inextricably intertwined with dropping out and diminished employment prospects is the problem of teen pregnancy. In some instances it is a cause; in others an effect, and sometimes it is an independent risk on its own. But whatever its relationship to other at-risk youth problems, teen parenthood usually carries with it its own special consequences. For most teenage females, and especially those under 18, it means having a child before they finish high school, thereby reducing their long-term earnings potential; before they are able to support the child, thereby forcing them to turn to public welfare; before they are married, so they must raise the child alone; and often before they have developed the emotional maturity needed to effectively parent a child.

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[6] Gary Wehlage and Robert Rutter, "Dropping Out: How Much Do Schools Contribute to the Problem?," Teachers College Record, Volume 87, Number 3, Spring 1986.

In 1984, out of ten million teenage females in the country, approximately one million became pregnant and 470,000 gave birth.[7] These pregnancy and birth rates are far higher than other western industrial countries. Whereas 96 of every 1,000 teenage females in the United States become pregnant each year, and nearly half of these pregnancies result in the birth of a child, the rates for other western industrial countries like England, France, and Canada are less than 45 pregnancies and 28 births per 1,000 teenage females.[8]

Pregnancy and birth rates for teens vary widely among communities within the United States. Heavily minority communities, for example, tend to have measurably higher teen pregnancy rates and much higher birth rates than the national norm. In 1983, the birth rates for white girls, aged 15-19, was 43 per 1,000; it was 82 per 1,000 for Hispanics; and 93 per 1,000 for blacks.[9] By the time they turn 20, 45 percent of black girls and 19 percent of whites have had babies.[10]

Not surprisingly, high teen pregnancy and birth rates also correspond with poverty and low academic achievement.[11] Recent research has shown that impoverished and academically disadvantaged students (boys and girls, black and white) tend to initiate sexual activity at earlier ages. Moreover, these same groups are less likely to use contraception than their more affluent or academically successful peers. In short, being poor, doing poorly in schools, and seeing few avenues out of poverty -- these factors greatly increase the probability that a teenager will become a parent.

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[7] Kristin A. Moore, "Teenage Pregnancy: The Dimensions of the Problem," New Perspectives, Summer 1985, a., pp. 11-15.

[8] Elise F. Jones, et. al., "Teenage Pregnancy in Developed Countries: Determinants and Policy Implications," Family Planning Perspectives, Vol. 17, No. 2, March/April 1985, pp. 53-63.

[9] Karen Pittman, "Adolescent Pregnancy: Whose Problem Is It?," Children's Defense Fund Clearinghouse, January 1986.

[10] Kristin A. Moore, Margaret Simms, and Charles Betsey, Information, Services, and Aspiration: Race Differences in Adolescent Fertility, Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, March 1984.

[11] Kristin A. Moore, Margaret Simms, and Charles Betsey, Information, Services, and Aspiration: Race Differences in Adolescent Fertility, Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, March 1984.

In addition to these demographic correlations, researchers estimate that, at the most, 25 percent of all teenage pregnancies may be intentional and these may be largely among 18 and 19 year olds. This means that roughly 75 percent of all teen pregnancies, or at least 750,000 nationwide, are unintentional. These teens become pregnant because they are sexually active and neither they nor their partners use contraceptives. In short, the vast majority of teen pregnancies are a result of teenagers failing to take the necessary steps to avoid pregnancy rather than a deliberate choice to have a baby. On the other hand, several authorities suggest that some girls may set out to fill a void in their lives and/or to gain approval from their peers. Others may see pregnancy as a way of keeping their boyfriends. Some teenage boys view fatherhood -- even though they do not marry the teen mother -- as a symbol of their manhood and encourage their girlfriends to have their baby. (New child support legislation pending in Congress, if enacted, will impose substantial costs on boys who become fathers by reducing their wages when they become employed.) The choice to become a teen parent is often reinforced by others in the community either implicitly or explicitly, such as in communities where the vast majority of families are headed by single females and having a baby at a young age out-of-wedlock is the norm.

B. Describing At-Risk Youth Problems at the Local Level

The national profile of at-risk youth problems sketched above should be useful to local planners in a number of ways. First, it points to some trends and patterns to look for in the circumstances of local young people. Second, it makes abundantly clear that at-risk youth problems are the consequence of no single cause but rather are tied to a multiplicity of variables: economics, family background, peer culture, school policies, individual aptitude, race, service availability, and job opportunity -- to name a few. Third, the national research helps convey the magnitude and urgency of the youth crisis itself. We are not dealing here with the plight of a neglected few or a regional problem or a passing demographic blip. We are looking instead at long term trends which, if unaddressed, will alter the country's future.

National research, while a useful introduction to the issues, will not assure a true understanding of the needs of at-risk young people in a particular local community. Nor will it necessarily lead to the most locally appropriate ways of meeting those needs. The fact is that the nature, scope, and origins of at-risk youth problems vary immensely from place to place. In Baltimore, Maryland, for example, over 24 percent of all births during 1986 were to teen mothers; in San Francisco the figure was less than 8.5 percent. A freshman entering high school in Pasadena, Texas is nine times more likely to drop out before graduation than a freshman in Ann Arbor, Michigan. And almost two-thirds of the public school children in Newark, New Jersey live in single parent households, while in Mesa, Arizona the number is fewer than one in six.

These contrasts simply illustrate the necessity of beginning a community planning process by first developing as detailed a profile as possible of locally at-risk youth. On the simplest level, this means counting "problem measures." How many and what percent of local youth drop out of school? What percentage of school-age girls become pregnant each year? What portion of recent high school graduates ended up unemployed? Figure 1 at the end of this Chapter lists a number of more detailed measures that communities should investigate as part of this effort to quantitatively define local at-risk youth problems. Although these measures only reflect actual problem behavior -- not the number of students who are still young but "at-risk" of falling into one or more of these categories -- they at least suggest the magnitude of the problem absent any new interventions. The Foundation, however, is asking the more difficult question of how to target interventions early on in order to prevent problem behaviors from occurring.

Nevertheless, the numbers of youth who are not now in school or working will provide community planners with a snapshot of the scope and extent of current at-risk youth problems. Equally important, however, is an informed estimate of the trends these problems represent. Put simply, are at-risk problems in the community getting worse, staying the same, or declining? Answers here can help the community make some judgments about which risks to local youth are most serious and which appear to be the fastest growing. It should also permit some initial understanding of the inter-relationships among at-risk youth problems; for example, what connection, if any, exists between declines in achievement levels and increases in dropout rates?

It is the degree to which these problems overlap that makes the case for an integrated approach, and thus a community needs to know how many of its dropouts are teen parents, how many of its summer job applicants are reading below grade level, and how many of its at-risk youth may have a history in the child welfare system. Without data on these overlaps, a community cannot address early intervention in the lives of youth who are known to be at-risk based on one or more of these problem measures.

It is also important that the community learn what groups of local youth are most frequently experiencing the problems being measured above. Finding an answer to this question means examining the demography of those who are affected by each of the problem measures. Among dropouts, for example, the appropriate issues include: What is the racial/ethnic composition of dropouts? What is the gender ratio? What schools and neighborhoods do dropouts tend to come from? What is the income and family status profile of those who leave school? As far as possible, the same answers need to be found for those who are falling behind academically, for those who become pregnant and those who bear children, and finally for those who, after leaving school, fail to find productive employment.

The usefulness of knowing the scope, trends, and demography of local youth problems is fairly easy to establish. Getting and organizing the necessary information, however, is a different story. For every community it will be an extremely difficult and labor intensive part of the planning process. It will involve a number of analytical challenges, such as: attempting to integrate information from different systems, with different timeframes and different definitions; finding unduplicated counts of the same youth appearing in different data sets; and filling in critical gaps in the information available. The costs of under-estimating the time and energy required for this part of the planning effort could be problemmatic, for a plan can only be strategic if it makes clear choices about resource priorities based on solid data.

Despite these difficulties, creating a detailed and accurate picture of local at-risk youth problems is essential to a successful community youth strategy for at least four reasons. First, a comprehensive description will enable the community at large to share a common sense of the magnitude and consequences of its at-risk youth crisis. Without this shared sense, it will be difficult to design solutions on a scale commensurate with the problems or win the community-wide support needed to implement those solutions. Second, the scope, nature and causes of at-risk youth problems appear to vary so substantially from one community to another that an effort to design interventions based primarily on national correlations and patterns may be inappropriate and unsuccessful in particular local contexts. Third, the arduous effort to extract from fragmented, inaccessible, or partial information a description of youth at risk will prove helpful in designing better, more usable systems for tracking the performance, progress and problems of a community's youth. Fourth, and most immediately important, a detailed local description of current at-risk youth problems is a prerequisite to the task of analyzing the causes, contributors, or conditions that have to be addressed if the problems are to be solved. In most communities today the range of opinion about the origin or principal "causes" of youth problems is extraordinarily diverse. "Family breakdown," "welfare," too little discipline, too much discipline, drugs, poverty, poor teachers, high academic standards, low academic standards, television, a reliance on youth abstinence, a permissive promotion of sex education and contraception -- in most communities, each of these factors have some advocates who cite them as the key cause of or contributor to the youth problem. While a single uniform perspective will be impossible to obtain in any community, the presence of a common accepted base of information will at least make it more likely that the community can come to some agreement on the nature and magnitude -- perhaps even the origin of the problems and thus on how to try to solve them.

Conducting an Inventory of Existing Services

In addition to descriptive data on the problems of local youth, planners of new strategies will also need to know a great deal about the community's existing system of youth services. Developing an overview of that system -- encompassing all its relevant programs, services and policies -- will also require a wide ranging data collection effort. In fact, many community actor[illegible] are likely to be surprised by the amount and diversity of resources, people, agencies, policies, levels of government, and distinct services that are currently being devoted -- effectively or otherwise -- to at-risk youth.

Cataloging or mapping these existing efforts is important for three reasons. First, an inventory of services will highlight the range of sectors and players already involved with youth and thereby provide a guide to the actors and organizations that need to participate in a truly community-wide planning effort for the future. Second, an inventory of existing policies provides the basis for evaluating the effectiveness, efficiency and gaps in current community responses to the needs of at-risk children and youth. Third, existing expenditures and effort

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represent a large potential resource -- which is the appropriate target for the redeployment emphases of this New Futures planning effort, as discussed in Chapter III. To know what is now being spent is essential in redirecting funds toward more effective and integrated strategies.

Figure 2, at the end of this Chapter, lists a number of the youth-oriented programs, agencies, and funding sources found in most communities. It is offered as a starting point for this service inventory effort.

The service inventory recommended above is more than a simple list of programs. For each of the major programs and services identified, local planners ought to develop answers to at least some of the following questions:

- What kind of youth is the program intended to serve (e.g., potential dropouts; out-of-school youth; teen parents; at-risk middle schoolers, etc.)?
- How many youth are being served (e.g., number per month or per year)?
- How are participating youth identified and reached (e.g., needs tests, eligibility rules, referral procedures)?
- What are the resources being expended: total funds, sources of funds, personnel involved, other resources?
- How is the program evaluated? What have been its effects on youth?

C. Analyzing Local Youth Problems

Informed by a current description of youth conditions and an overview of existing services, the community will be in a good position to undertake a fresh interpretation and analysis of its local youth problems. By analysis, we mean the process of identifying those characteristics and conditions which cause or lead to youth problems in a particular community. The purpose of this analysis is to identify the environments, characteristics, circumstances or behaviors which appear to put certain children and youth at particular risk of failing in school, dropping out, becoming pregnant, or ending up unemployed. By isolating the particular needs or experiences of youth, which if better addressed or altered, could prevent problems from developing, the analysis can serve as a guide and direction-setter for community action: for new programs, policies, and interventions.

Even a community that has abundant information about the circumstances of its youth will confront a range of choices in how it approaches those facts -- in how it looks at the problem. There are three fairly common perspectives on these issues, each of which warrants some discussion.

The first of these, which can be called the socio-economic approach, focuses its analysis on the low socio-economic status of youth and their families. From this perspective, poverty, family structure, race, the job market, etc., are stressed as the key "explainers" of youth failure, dropouts, pregnancy, idleness and so on. While it is correct to note that in any American community, a description of at-risk youth is destined to highlight significant social and economic correlations with youth problems, it is also possible to overstate these correlations. The danger of an exclusive interpretation of at-risk problems as consequences of income status, family background and ethnicity is the inherent implication that community institutions (e.g., schools, local government, employers) are powerless to address at-risk youth problems, since they do not have the resources, leverage, or responsibility to alter the basic social and economic "causes" of those problems. In its worst form, this perspective can and in many instances has justified community and school inaction in the face of critical youth problems.

A second fairly common perspective is one which tends to see youth problems as the direct product or consequence of discrete community policies or practices. Dropping out, for example, is explained, in large part, by reference to "overly-high" academic requirements, current suspension policies or the lack of school curriculum alternatives. Youth unemployment is interpreted in the context of insufficient slots in available youth job training programs. The problem with this emphasis on community policies is not that it is wholly wrong, but that it can lead to a vast understatement of the social, economic, and cultural forces that make some youth substantially more vulnerable to underachievement and exclusion than others.

Finally, there is a third view -- one which seeks to understand patterns of youth failure in terms of the attitudes, values, and personality characteristics of problem youth themselves and/or their families. From this vantage point, lack of aptitude, ambition, discipline, self-control, and foresight lead to the poor choices and adverse individual outcomes, which, when added up, "explain" the community's at-risk youth problem.

While most people do not cling to only one of these perspectives, the Foundation believes a more integrating and balanced approach should guide the New Futures effort. The New Futures initiative envisions changes in institutions serving youth which will lead to changes in youth behavior. More specifically, there is a need to focus on the operation of community institutions -- not just as causes of youth problems -- but in terms of their potential impact on socio-economic disadvantage on the one hand, and on the formation of individual values and perceptions on the other. In the view of the Foundation, schools, service systems, employers and others can operate either to ameliorate and compensate for socio-economic disadvantages or to perpetuate and exacerbate them. Similarly, these major community institutions have great potential influence over the motivation, values, world view and choices of the young people who grow up among them.

Out of these premises comes a recommendation that communities try to analyze and understand youth and their problems as well as examine the existing service system that can address those problems. Based on national data and research, the Foundation has identified several characteristics which appear to occur frequently in at-risk youth populations. These are briefly described below. It is recommended that New Futures communities consider these factors as part of their effort to analyze their own at-risk youth population and its problems.

1. A History of Academic Difficulty

Although not universal, the records of most dropouts, teen mothers, and unemployed youth reveal a pattern of fairly early and usually deepening academic difficulty.[12] Poor grades and school retention, in other words, appear to be characteristic precursors and predictors of subsequent problems.

What this actually means for any particular child, of course, resists simple generalization. In some cases, academic failure is largely a manifestation of other problems: alienation, drug involvement, loss of motivation to achieve. In other instances, especially when it appears early, academic difficulty may be a problem arising from lack of preparatory experiences, student aptitude limitations, poor teaching, and other circumstances.

In either case, however, academic difficulty has a special importance for problem solving. For one thing, it is frequently one of the earliest indicators of special risk that is visible to the community. Consequently, it represents one of the most important flags for prevention, assessment and intervention. Secondly, academic failure -- whatever its origin -- increases risk and vulnerability. Continued poor performance in school almost always further diminishes self-esteem, encourages negative self-labeling, reduces expectations, and limits skill acquisition -- all of which are likely to increase the probability of dropping out, getting pregnant, or remaining unemployed.

2. A Lack of the Information and Experiences Required to Make Positive Decisions and Choices

There is a tendency to assume that the children in a given community bring and gain from their school-age years roughly the same basic body of information and experiences needed for growing up. Indeed, this might be described as the mission of public education. A careful examination of the lives of at-risk young people, however, may reveal this is far less true than is generally assumed. Studies of early childhood development have already established the wide differentials in sensory, language, social and problem-solving experience that young children bring to kindergarten. Perhaps even more striking, however, is the apparent inequality in access to critical information and experiences among youth during their school-age years.

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[12] Samuel S. Peng, "High School Dropouts: Descriptive Information from High School and Beyond (HS&B)," National Center for Education Statistics: Washington, D.C. November 1983.

Research into teen pregnancy, studies of dropouts and profiles of troubled and delinquent youth reveal that a staggering number of these young people have matured without acquiring or being effectively exposed to some or all of the following:

- basic information about human sexuality and reproduction;
- basic study habits, learning methods, test-taking skills;
- information about the world of work: the kind and scope of jobs that exist; basic work habits; skill requirements; employer expectations; or models of successful employed adults other than teachers;
- basic information about the law: what acts are illegal and the consequences that attend them;
- basic information about post-secondary education: the nature of college or vocational education, access to it, opportunities created by it;

If it is true that as a result of this lack of information youths make poor decisions that limit their futures, then it is important for a community to learn how its youth are gaining access to important information, and which pieces are not being made available to youth. This is especially critical since enabling greater access to this kind of knowledge is clearly within the potential reach of local institutions and programs.

3. A Lack of Reasons and Reinforcement for Effort and Achievement

It may seem that studying, staying in school, graduating and postponing parenthood all carry their own reward--a future of options, promise and possibilities. For a few farsighted adolescents, this alone may be sufficient incentive for effort and achievement. For a great many others, however, there is a need for more immediate and frequent reinforcement: recognition, praise, promotion, privileges, and rewards offered liberally along the course of growing up. Adult planners should remember that adolescence is a developmental period of considerable stress and uncertainty, in which youth do not always move as rationally toward choosing their future as adults imagine themselves to have done in their youth. Incentives can reinforce the message that actions have consequences, and youth need to hear that message repeatedly. This need seems especially great among those children at-risk -- those who find academic mastery most challenging or those who have the least exposure and familiarity within their family environment to "long-run" rewards: college, careers, and economic security.

Yet, it appears that the youngsters who need incentives the most are the least likely to get them. In many cases, at-risk youth are the children of parents who are least equipped to value and consistently reinforce academic effort. They are more likely to have peer group associations that not only under-value academic effort, but in some instances penalize it. Those who come to school less able to compete are too often those who win the least praise for their progress. For many, the school's most visible reward system -- grades -- is experienced as a continuing source of negative signals: penalties and stigma that do not become rewards even in the wake of increased effort.

As at-risk youth grow older, the lack of incentives for positive effort frequently gives way to concrete disincentives. At-risk adolescents are more likely than their more advantaged counterparts to encounter individuals for whom school attendance and graduation have not led to economic opportunity. They are also more likely to be exposed to negative behaviors (hustling, crime, drugs, short-term jobs, welfare dependency) that appear to have more immediate and tangible rewards. Disincentives can also mount for these youngsters within the school environment itself. The burden on those who have been previously retained increases with each passing year. Teachers and counselors often become increasingly disinclined to reinforce the aspirations of those youth for whom they have developed low expectations. In some cases, in fact, the "system" actively discourages the presence and attendance of those who have a record of prior failure.

In summary, the behavior and choices of problem youth, which may seem irrational and self-defeating to others, are too often seen by the youth themselves as reasonable responses to the incentives and signals that they experience from community institutions. Analyzing and understanding how existing institutional incentives -- or the lack thereof -- may impact the motivation, behavior and choices of certain children in a given community context is of critical importance to a New Futures initiative.

4. Lack of Access to Adult Support, Assistance and Role Models

One of the characteristics that may distinguish problem youth from their more successful cohorts is their comparative lack of continuous close and supportive relationships with adults.[13] This is not to suggest that most at-risk youth are without a caring parent or parents. Rather, it is an observation that certain children, particularly those from single-parent, low-income, or severely stressed families, are more likely to grow up without the degree of adult supervision and guidance, without the variety of positive adult role models (for work or parenting), and without the amount of adult assistance and support that is needed to mature into responsible adults.

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[13] Bernard Lefkowitz, Tough Change: Growing Up On Your Own In America, New York: The Free Press, 1986.

This isolation may be one of the most critical and pivotal characteristics found among at-risk youth. In many ways, it may be the source of other high-risk characteristics. Attentive adults -- parents, relatives and others -- can be key motivators, enforcers, and tutors in the academic effort of children. In a more general way, the approval of caring adults can be an incentive and sanction in shaping all aspects of childhood behavior. It is from informal adult interaction and example that many children learn of the world of work and the norms of adult responsibility. Finally, caring adults often provide the bulk of moral and material assistance in solving problems, getting out of trouble, accessing needed services, going to college, finding a job and the host of other events that mark the lives of children who succeed.

For all of these reasons, it is essential that an analysis of at-risk youth in any community include a special sensitivity to the possible isolation from adult support of at-risk youth and the factors that contribute to it.

5. The Burden of Labels

For many students, the factors that have placed them in particular jeopardy of dropping out of school and remaining unemployed have been exacerbated by labels. From the earliest tracking system in first grade that separates the "smart" students from the slow ones, some children learn that they are not as good as others. A student may have been labeled "under-achiever" in second grade, a "behavior problem" in fourth grade, a "flunk-out" in sixth grade, a "juvenile delinquent" in ninth grade, and finally a "potential dropout" in tenth grade. To the system, these labels are necessary in order to target services on an individual student; but to the student, they send clear signals that he/she is deficient, a failure, no-good. To some extent, these labels may create self-fulfilling prophecies: as the student hears these words repeated over and over, he/she begins to believe that he/she is incapable of succeeding and that everything he/she does will be a failure. The student eventually stops trying.[14]

In analyzing a community's youth problems, it is important to recognize that the labels children and youth hear can have a profound impact on their behavior. By using labels, community institutions often reinforce the negative images associated with the risk characteristics of disadvantaged youth, thereby underscoring the problem, not solving it. The converse, however, also applies: by not using labels, institutions can send messages to youth that all of them are valued, capable, and expected to succeed.

D. Assessing Current Community Responses to At-Risk Youth

The foregoing suggestions on measuring youth problems, mapping services and analyzing pertinent risk factors should set the stage for a critical self-assessment of the community's past and current responses to at-risk youth. Again, the best explanation of youth problems is probably an interaction between the student's characteristics and the local institutional environment. Communities should raise a series of evaluative questions about the reach, impact, consequences, strengths and weaknesses of existing programs and policies related to youth. Sketched below are illustrations of the kinds of questions that need to be asked about the community's current responses to youth.

- Coverage: What percentage of youth having particular needs are being served by existing services: What needs are least addressed: (For example, only a quarter of the youth in need of exposure to world of work information currently have access to it.)
- Timing: How effective is th timing of current interventions, given the community's understanding of

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[14] See, for example, Jeannie Oakes, "Tracking, Inequality, and the Rhetoric of Reform: Why Schools Don't Change," Journal of Education, Vol. 168, No. 1, 1986.

at-risk problems: (For example, is individualized teacher attention or compensatory instruction offered in a sufficiently timely fashion to prevent retention or negative self-labeling? Are sexuality and pregnancy prevention programs available before predicted onset of sexual activity by community youth?)

- Causes vs. Consequences: What is the relationship between current services and the community's understanding of the "causes" of youth problems: Are resources devoted disproportionately to ameliorating consequences at the expense of addressing the factors contributing to problems?

- Incentives: To what extent do current policies, practices, and programs include incentives to desired behavior or effort by at-risk youth? (e.g., Do "grading" practices and policies reward academic effort? Do summer school programs contain incentives or disincentives for participation by at-risk youth? How do suspension and expulsion policies serve as incentives or disincentives?)

- Segregation and Labeling: To what extent do current policies, practices, and services (including their eligibility requirements) tend to negatively label, segregate or limit participation opportunities for these students: What are the consequences of these tendencies: Can they be avoided? (e.g., To what extent do existing student "assessment" programs lead to tracking and thus to negative labeling by peers, teachers, students themselves: Do compensatory and remedial programs segregate some at-risk students from mainstream school activities: Do vocational education or job training programs operate to limit some students' interest or aspirations for post-secondary education?)

- Mutual Reinforcement: To what extent do current services and programs reinforce each other in promoting desired outcomes on behalf of at-risk youth: (e.g., Do summer jobs programs increase or decrease summertime "academic" learning; do employer recruiting practices promote and reward graduation or do they sometimes encourage dropping out?)

- Scope: Are existing services, programs and interventions sufficiently frequent and intense to have a meaningful impact on targeted youth: (e.g., Are pregnancy prevention information efforts carried out on a scale that is likely to influence individual attitudes and choices? Are compensatory instructional programs sufficiently rich to lead to a bona fide acceleration in skill acquisition?)

Community planners should look especially critically at their school system, as it plays a major role in shaping youths' futures. On the negative side, research has shown that some factors contributing to students' decisions to leave school before graduation include: students' perceptions that teachers do not care about them; and messages from teachers and administrators that school failure is inevitable for some students. On the positive side, most school systems are just beginning to rethink how they respond to at-risk youth. As greater numbers of poor and minority youth and those from single parent homes enter the schools, districts are beginning to realize that past educational approaches and strategies are no longer adequate or appropriate fro many students. Changing demographics are rapidly altering the student population and few school districts have developed comprehensive plans for the curriculum modification, new teacher strategies, and organizational restructuring that is necessary to meet the needs of this growing cohort of at-risk youth.

Raising these and similar evaluative questions about existing school and community responses to at-risk youth should help point to positive impacts and negatives, redundancies and gaps, sound policies and mistaken ones. It should, in short, lay the foundation for designing an improved, more coherent set of local institutional interventions, capable of reducing the rate of dropouts, teen pregnancy and youth unemployment. Approaches to this task are the subject of the next chapter.

FIGURE 1

MEASURES OF AT-RISK YOUTH PROBLEMS

The following questions identify measures that can be used to describe at-risk youth problems in a locality.

1. How many students drop out of school?

   - In reality, this is several questions and a good answer would include several statistics. But before any numbers can be generated, a dropout has to be defined. For New Futures purposes, a dropout means any student who (for whatever reason other than death or extended illness) leaves school before graduation without transferring or re-enrolling into another school or diploma-granting institution within six months.
   - How many students, grades 7-12, dropped out last year? What percentage is this of total enrollment for those grades?
   - How many dropped out in each grade last year? What percentage were they of each grade's enrollment?
   - How many entering freshman drop out at any point before graduation? What percent are these of their total freshman cohort?

2. How many students are failing to acquire age-appropriate academic skills?

   - Of all the students enrolled in each grade level, how many and what percentage are one-year behind grade level for their age? Two-years behind?
   - How many and what percent of students score below whatever standardized achievement tests are used by the schools? How does this break out by each grade in which standardized tests are given?
   - How many and what percentage of students earn lower than a C average by grade?
   - How many and what percent of students fail some other local or state achievement/competency standard by grade?

FIGURE 1 (Continued)

3. How many youth are failing to find productive roles in the community after they leave school?
   - How many young adults 15-21 are not in school, not employed and not in the military?
   - How many of these are officially counted as unemployed
   - Of the total number of inactive youth, what percent are high school dropouts?
4. What is the extent of the teem pregnancy/teen parenting problem in the community?
   - How many girls 13-19 become pregnant each year by age?
   - How many girls 13-19 bear children each year by age?
   - What percentage of all girls 13-19 become pregnant before age 20? What percentage bear at least one child? Two?
   - What percentage of all births in the city are to teenagers?
5. What other measures help define at-risk youth problems in our community?
   - What percentage of local school age children come from low income and/or welfare dependent families?
   - What percentage come from single parent households?
   - How many juveniles are arrested each year? How many are adjudicated delinquent? How many juveniles are involved in serious offenses (e.g., Part I arrests)? What percentage of delinquent acts are believed to be gang-related?
   - How many young people are involved in alcohol and drug abuse: What is the most frequent form of chemical abuse by young people?

FIGURE 2

SAMPLE YOUTH PROGRAMS AND POLICIES TO BE INCLUDED IN SYSTEM INVENTORY

1. Relevant School Policies

- Achievement testing;
- Identification, "diagnosis," assessment of students;
- Truancy and attendance;
- Promotion and retention;
- Suspension/expulsion;
- Dropouts including definition and follow-up;
- Pregnant and parenting students;
- Parental involvement;
- Authority/responsibility of principles, teachers, support staff

2. Individual Schools Within the System

- Basic data on each school's performance and operation, including: enrollment, operational budget, achievement of students, attendance rate, and dropout rate.

3. School System Programs

- Programs for identification and diagnosis of learning needs or special problems;
- Chapter I Compensatory Education Programs; other compensatory activities;
- School-year remediation programs and activities;
- Elementary, middle and high school counseling and special services;
- Summer school programs;
- Special Education programs and services;
- Specialized programs explicitly targeted to potential dropouts;
- "Alternative Schools"
- Specialized Curriculum for at-risk, exceptional students (non-special education)
- Curriculum components, special programs and services for teen mothers;
- Attendance promotion activities;
- Truancy-related programs;
- Homework assistance programs;
- Tutoring programs
- In-service or other training programs for administrators and staff related to at-risk youth issues

FIGURE 2 (Continued)

- Health education, family and life options courses;
- Sex Education courses or course components;
- School-based health services;
- School-based drug education, abuse prevention, or alcohol/drug counseling;
- School-sponsored parental involvement activities and programs;
- Vocational education programs

4. Community-Based and Government Services

- Mental health prevention and treatment programs;
- Alcohol and drug prevention and treatment programs;
- Services to the Juvenile Court (e.g., probation, supervision, community service, restitution, case management);
- Parent education and training programs;
- Delinquency prevention programs (federal, state or local);
- Day Care programs for latchkey children and children of school-age mothers;
- Anti-gang programs;
- Youth recreation programs (summer and school year);
- Community-based adolescent health services (including clinics, health education, family planning);
- Pregnancy prevention programs;
- Runaway youth programs;
- Shelter care programs

5. Youth Employment and Training Programs

- Summer Jobs Programs;
- World of Work Orientation Programs ("Career Fairs," job shadowing, Adopt-A-School sponsored programs);
- After school job, work experience and training programs;
- School-to-Work transition programs;
- Post high school vocational training programs;
- Post-graduation placement assistance programs.

CHAPTER II
Designing More Effective Approaches

A. Improving Achievement and Reducing Dropouts

B. Preventing Teen Pregnancies

C. Youth Employment

D. Designing a Comprehensive Case Management System for Youth

CHAPTER II: DESIGNING MORE EFFECTIVE APPROACHES

The New Futures program attempts to reshape the basic policies and practices of those institutions which help determine the preparation and prospects of young people. It is not intended to be a research or experimental program created as a supplement, enhancement or even compensatory response to "business-as-usual" practices and policies. The New Futures program seeks to make long term changes in the operation, principles, and policies by which education, employment, and other youth services are administered, financed and delivered at both the local and state levels of government as well as in the private sector. The changes are envisioned as durable, continuing long after the period of Foundation involvement.

If nothing else, this dictates change on a large and intensive scale. A more modest effort would have little if any chance of making a measurable change in the total target population, and could be perceived as expendable during times of tight budgets. At-risk youth are typically those who cause the most trouble for service providers. By virtue of their alienation from mainstream social institutions, they may be disruptive in school, hostile or indifferent to those who try to help them, and defiant of the system's rules and norms. For all these reasons, many service providers -- educators, caseworkers, and others -- often prefer working with less disadvantaged youths or feel they cannot help the most disadvantaged. Consequently, priorities for energy and investment have remained with other groups and other issues. In the end, effective institutional change cannot occur until a community builds and sustains a real priority for its at-risk children.

This emphasis on changing mainline community institutions does not, of course, mean that supplemental or specialized programs for at-risk students are ineffective or irrelevant. Indeed, alternative curricula and schools have succeeded in helping many at-risk students finish school and achieve after graduation. But institutional change does mean incorporating the insights and elements of alternative programs into the mainstream school's response to at-risk students. It does mean initiating assessment, remediation, and individualized attention into middle school practices so as to reduce the number of students who become disaffected and disadvantaged by high school. Most of all, it means holding the school system, the youth serving agencies, the employment/training system, and other community institutions accountable for assuring the preparation and promoting the potential of all young people.

It should be stressed that the particular components of an institutional change strategy will vary from community to community. In some places, it might involve a reallocation of existing resources to give more individual attention to at-risk students. In many communities, institutional change will entail curriculum revision or modified training programs, job descriptions, and performance evaluations to support greater teacher and administrator attention to the needs of at-risk students. And almost everywhere, there is a need to redesign the institutional linkages between schools, training programs and employers in a way that reinforces school attendance, skill acquisition, and job readiness by the entire youth population. These examples simply illustrate the kinds and scale of institutional changes that are needed if we are to achieve a lasting impact on the futures of at-risk youth.

Within this general observation are two very practical cautions for those who will be designing New Futures proposals. First is the importance of resisting the temptation to use New Futures resources simply to expand existing projects targeted on at-risk youth. Instead of "divvying-up" new funds among the separate programs and organizations involved, the community-wide planning process can foster greater program integration and lead to collective decisions about program and policy priorities.

The second and related caution is to appreciate the time and complexity involved in a genuinely institutional approach to these problems. Put simply, New Futures objectives should be ambitious and long term, but the specific interventions and reforms proposed for getting there need to be realistic. They have to reflect thoughtful assessments of local realities: resources, capacity, manpower requirements, training needs, institutional resistance to change, the parameters of community acceptance and support for specific interventions, and the local and state ability to institutionalize new approaches. In summary, a convincing New Futures plan should describe what can be done in practice over the next five years to create what ought, in principle, someday be available for every at-risk youth.

A Framework

Following are the three principal elements comprising the framework for local New Futures initiatives:

1. Intervention should be early enough to prevent or at least minimize academic and related deficiencies as well as early pregnancy. Most dropout prevention and pregnancy prevention programs target youth in the late high school years. A wealth of evidence, however, suggests that if prevention is the goal -- as it is in this case -- then intervention must begin earlier. According to a leading analyst, late teen idleness is the last stop on a path that begins with academic problems in middle school or shortly thereafter. Poor grades or perceived inability to compete at this stage leads to reduced interest and motivation, worsening school attendance and still lower grades. This deepening failure, in turn, prompts alienation, lowered self-esteem, disruptive behavior and disciplinary actions by school authorities. Parental criticism and peer labeling further reinforce defensiveness and negativity, leading ultimately to the decision to drop out as a way of avoiding school failure.

The New Futures program seeks to prevent this cycle from running its course. Therefore, the focus will be on those students who are still in school rather than on those who have already dropped out. Interventions should begin not later than the middle school grades, at or before a child's first signs of difficulty. Supportive programs should be maintained throughout the rest of their school years, and for at least one year after graduation. For practical purposes, however, the New Futures program may also include services for high school students in the first years of the program's operation. Within a few years, all students who participate will have been part of the initiative since middle or elementary school. The results should be most positive for these students since the intervention was begun early on, before problems became full blown. The practical result of this suggestion is that candidate communities should target the bulk of their efforts on students in middle school grades. This requires a special sensitivity to and understanding of the developmental needs of young adolescents. As one leading authority has written:

> "The imperatives of early adolescent development are too compelling to be overlooked or denied. It is a time in life [when adolescents] experience the dramatic conjunction of rapid biological, social, emotional, and cognitive changes. Early adolescence is marked by a characteristic growth spurt, the appearance of secondary sex characteristics, and the onset of puberty. The psychosocial tasks of adolescence include forming a conscious sense of individual uniqueness and solidarity with group ideals. The challenge to schools is to work with people in an age group . . . at a time when they seek to extend their personal autonomy from adults and simultaneously to identify with them."[15]

2. Positive incentives should be used to alter institutional priorities and practices vis a vis at-risk youth. In many schools and community organizations, teachers and administrators who want to be responsive to the needs of at-risk youth often feel frustrated and hamstrung by a lack of resources -- and often feel that the "system" discourages extraordinary efforts. The issue of incentives needs to be addressed forthrightly, for it is unrealistic -- and unfair to school personnel and service providers -- to expect new commitments for

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[15] Joan Lipsitz, Successful Schools for Young Adolescents, New Brunswick: Transaction Books, 1984, pp.6-7.

at-risk youth when the old measures of job performance and evaluation, for example, are unchanged.

Negative incentives that surround at-risk students must be replaced with positive ones. Successful dropout prevention, for instance, can be achieved only when problem students feel there are reasons to stay in school, and when teachers and administrators have reasons to keep them there. Providing such incentives requires creativity and a commitment within the community.

Such incentives need to be meaningfully related to the values of at-risk students; they must be sufficiently concrete and targeted to motivate desired behaviors; and collectively they must provide a credible message that current efforts create future opportunities. Illustrative of this kind of incentive are attentive teacher praise, public recognition for individual skill improvement, access to desirable after-school or summer jobs conditioned on attendance and effort, or job/scholarship opportunities upon graduation.

Positive incentives should also be extended to students who are not at-risk of dropping out of school as well as teachers and administrators. The peers of at-risk students should be encouraged to feel they have a stake in reducing the dropout rate and increasing overall academic skills at their school. The whole body of students in a particular grade or school may receive some tangible reward if their dropout or pregnancy rates, for example, are reduced.

In sum, the New Futures program places a premium on a clear-headed recognition that positive incentives are essential to provoke system-wide reforms. These incentives must be carefully designed so they form a coherent and powerful community response rather than merely a patchwork of unrelated incentives. Without an integrated and comprehensive set of incentives, it is doubtful that lasting, significant progress on behalf of at-risk youth can be achieved in spite of initial good intentions.

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3. Services should be provided in a way that integrates pregnancy prevention, education, and employment strategies. Many innovative and, in theory, well-designed interventions have failed because they have been undertaken in isolation. For example, good vocational programs which teach job skills ultimately fail if there are no jobs. School retention strategies that merely keep students longer but which do not remedy basic academic deficiencies end up merely postponing, not solving, the real problems.

As with the promotion of positive incentives, the New Futures program places great importance on integrating programs for at-risk youth. For example, while the causes of teenage pregnancy are complex and variable, research suggests that teenage girls who perform poorly in school, see little career opportunity and have low self-esteem are particularly likely to become mothers at young ages. Poor education achievement has also been positively associated with earlier sexual activity among teenage boys. Indeed, dropping out of high school may be both a cause and effect of early pregnancy. Thus, not only are health education programs relevant to preventing teenage pregnancies, but so are classroom and employment initiatives designed to increase academic success, skill acquisition and career opportunities.

Success in persuading at-risk students to stay in school and acquire skills depends, ultimately, on their expectations that their efforts will be worth it. For many, that means gaining access to a good job. Conversely, school efforts to prevent dropouts will not succeed if school graduates have no better employment and earning prospects than students who have dropped out before graduation. Thus, both school reforms and new employment opportunities must be visibly linked.

In short, it is important that local efforts not isolate a single problem and design programmatic strategies around that single problem. At-risk youth have many needs, and any effective strategy will have to address them in a coordinated, mutually reinforcing way.

One way to translate the principle of integration to an operational feature is to condition one set of services on the use of another. For example, a student may be eligible for employment services only if he/she is attending school full-time. This creates one form of a "linkage" that reinforces the inseparability of education and employment. Another way to maximize the likelihood that services are integrated on an operational level is to deploy various services at the same physical location, or create a function to ensure that a student has access to and actually uses services in different locations.

This approach provides the framework for the programmatic recommendations concerning (A) dropouts and academic achievement, (B) teen pregnancy, (C) youth employment and (D) case management that follow. They are treated separately here for purposes of clarity, although as just noted, they must be integrated in reality. In each of the four areas, we have specified some broad policy directions and programmatic components which appear, from research and experience, to be effective in changing the outcomes for at-risk youth. Wherever possible, we have illustrated these policy and program elements with more detailed program descriptions and reference materials in the appendices. However, it is important to caution candidate communities that the sample programs described in this document are only small discrete pieces of the more comprehensive reform plans the Foundation expects as part of New Futures. They are used here only as illustrations of some of the components of what must be a more far-reaching and strategic plan for assisting at-risk youth to become successful and productive adults.

A discussion of each of the four programmatic areas follows.

A. Improving Achievement and Reducing Dropouts

The public school system represents the single most important public institutional environment for success or failure by children. Ideally, schools should be places in which every student succeeds in learning -- in acquiring the basic skills needed for a productive adulthood. The truth is that most schools do not meet that standard. In fact, for a significant fraction of youth, school is where they first and most lastingly fail. The number of students who are truant, fail to graduate, or do graduate without having learned enough -- these are the measures of that failure rate.

The Foundation believes that the most productive way of reducing dropouts and under-achievement is through improvement of the schools. Put even more plainly, the best long-run dropout prevention program is a good school.

In order to realize the long term goal of school reform, equalization of school financing must be addressed. Since it is often the school districts with the greatest proportion of disadvantaged students that are most disadvantaged financially by state allocation formulas, the issue of school finance equalization is an essential component of long term institutional change. As a result of the U.S. Supreme Court ruling that left school finance equalization up to individual states, it is now the states that are faced with addressing whether and how to equalize resources among districts. These debates continue across the nation, not only between urban and rural districts, but also between urban/rural and suburban districts.

Without underestimating the challenge of school reform, this broad and long-term aim should provide the context for proposing specific steps to improve learning and reduce dropouts in any system. The central planning question, accordingly, ought to be: what concrete elements or characteristics of good schools can we introduce or strengthen in the next few years that will have particular relevance for those students at greatest risk?

To help candidate communities answer this question, it is possible to identify some key structural reform approaches that school districts have tried or that the literature suggests are likely to be successful. Although the research literature documenting long-term structural school reforms is not vast (or definitive about what works), the Foundation has identified the following examples of structural school reforms as those most likely to yield positive outcomes for at-risk students.

1. Long-Term Structural School Reforms

   - Increased Autonomy at the School Building Level. For education reform to succeed, teachers and staff must have some latitude and authority to vary course content, instructional strategies, schedules and extra classroom activities as they try to accommodate the spectrum of learning needs among their students. System-wide regimens and centralized decision-making governing curriculum, class structure, teacher scheduling, and short term learning objectives and goals has been shown to stifle this necessary and creative flexibility. To correct this problem, more and more school districts are exploring the concepts of "school-based management" and "teacher empowerment."

     "School-based management" means that principals and their staff have substantial authority (and accountability) for setting school performance goals, structuring the schedule and patterns for daily instruction, initiating new programs and activities, and evaluating achievement.

     "Teacher empowerment," simply means policies and actions that reserve substantial authority to individual teachers to determine the means and methods of meeting the learning objectives of those students for whom they are accountable.

     One example of a school district that has decentralized its decision-making authority to the school building level is found in Hammond, Indiana and is described in Appendix A. In this example, the teacher's union worked with school administrators to move authority for resource allocation and other policy decisions to school site committees made up of teachers, principals, and community representatives.

o Greater Flexibility for the Structure and Scheduling of School Programs. Increased autonomy at the school building level not only makes teachers and principals more involved in the process and outcomes of learning, it also gives the school the flexibility with which to restructure itself. Some schools have abandoned the typical six-class periods per day structure in which students are organized by grade level and teachers are organized by departments. Instead, some have created alternative ways of organizing themselves, either through team teaching or forming alternative student groups.

"Instructional teaming" refers to practices that enable a group of teachers and staff to work collectively in assessing student needs, developing instructional plans and implementing those plans. In addition to improving assessment, problem solving and teacher morale, team teaching is seen as a way of assuring exposure of different learning styles to a wider range of teaching styles. "Alternative Student Groupings" are frequently called schools-within-a-school or student "houses." Most often employed in larger middle or high schools, they are attempts to create closer and longer interaction among a sub-group of students as well as between that sub-group and a group of teachers and staff. The objective is to increase peer support; strengthen student attachment to the school; enhance student relationships with supportive teachers; and improve teacher and staff awareness of individual student needs, progress and families. Such alternative groupings are often intended to allow at-risk students to become "bonded" to the institution or at least to one or more adults in the school. For at-risk students, schools have lost their legitimacy, social bonding is weak or non-existent, and therefore the degree to which the student is engaged in the process of learning is diminished. Schools must be restructured to create the conditions necessary to bring about the social bonding that has been dissolved.

An example of a school that has created a non-traditional organizational structure is found at the Region 7 Middle School in Detroit where teachers are divided into teams of 3-4 teachers and each student is assigned to one team for approximately nine weeks. For four days a week, students attend classes with their team of teachers, and on Fridays they may choose independent classes from a rich array of mini-courses offered by the entire school staff including administrators. (See Appendix A for further detail.)

o Individualized Instruction. This encompasses policies, training programs, teaching practices and structural configurations that promote a high degree of teacher responsiveness to the learning style, pace, skill level and special interests of individual students. The individualized instruction approach represents an alternative to the more traditional monolithic classroom instructional strategy, which usually relies on whole group lecturing with pull-out compensatory or instructional tracking to meet the special needs of "slow" or "fast" learners. By avoiding segregative or tracking models, effective individualized instruction can accommodate aptitude and learning style differences without negative self, peer or system labeling and its adverse consequences.

One example of a school initiative to individualize instruction is the Willard Junior High

School's "detracking" initiative in Berkeley, California. To make the school more heterogeneous instead of grouping all students according to ability, the school deliberately balanced all English and history classes so that academic, ethnic and gender distribution was equitable. (See Appendix A for further detail.)

Another example of an effort to individualize instruction is found in the Samuel V. Noe Middle School in Louisville, Kentucky where the school reorganized itself into seven semi-autonomous "schools" of interdisciplinary teams. Within each team, instruction is individualized to meet the needs of every student. There are seven academic teams (four are multi-aged and three contain single grades) and one non-academic team. The school day is divided into two blocks of time, one for the academic teams and one for the non-academic team. (See Appendix A for further detail.)

o Progress-Based Evaluation and Opportunities for Success. Referenced here are methods for measuring and reporting student achievement and progress in terms of individual competencies. Students, in other words, are evaluated by the degree of improvement they make in a given period in their own skills and knowledge, e.g., a 15 point improvement in a reading competency test during the quarter. Progress-based evaluation contrasts with the traditional reliance on a ranking of individual skill levels within a particular peer grouping (e.g., grades of "superior" or "below average"; or class rank). It also contrasts with norm-referenced scoring that compares students to a standard distribution of student scores.

The virtues of individual progress-based evaluations are several. They provide a more informative measure of a student's skill level and rate of learning than conventional grades; they provide all students, including those academically behind, with success opportunities and effective incentives for learning efforts; they discourage negative self-images and failure labels in less competitive students and reduce complacency in more able ones.

The assumption that all students can be successful learners and achievers should also be reflected in high teacher sensitivity to accomplishment, praise for effort and frequent recognition of achievement which is extended to all students. Teachers should minimize the exclusion and failure experience among those students whose aptitudes, knowledge base or learning methods are at variance with a class, school, or system's dominant instructional and curricular strategy.

An example of progress-based evaluation is found in Detroit's Region 7 Middle School (mentioned above) where evaluation forms that report on a student's skills in each class have replaced grades. A science teacher, for instance, completes an evaluation form on each of his/her students every session, recording the student's strengths and weaknesses in classifying, organizing, and applying information, and generalizing and synthesizing experiences. In addition, the evaluation form reports on the student's work habits such as following directions, completing assignments, working independently, etc. The forms are shared with parents and maintained in the school's records. (For more information, see Appendix A.)

o Incentives for Effective Teaching of all Students. The demands on principals, support staff and especially teachers implied in success-oriented, individualized instruction are very large. They require extra time, patience, creativity and commitment. In most public school systems, however, there are few, if any, explicit incentives to motivate or reward the additional effort and skill required to improve learning outcomes for at-risk students. In fact, there are usually disincentives. High achieving students are much easier to teach; their progress and engagement provide more immediate satisfaction. Their parents tend to be more involved -- either as a source of support or pressure for attention. They present fewer discipline demands. At-risk pupils, by contrast, entail more time and experimentation to engage. If they are disaffected, unmotivated, or alienated, such efforts can be deeply frustrating. Perhaps, worst of all, low status and limited resources are frequently attached to concentration on academically at-risk students or to teaching in schools with disproportionate numbers of such youth.

If real improvements are to be made in the kind of instruction that engages and retains at-risk youth, then existing incentive patterns need to be significantly altered. More principal and administrative support as well as union leadership has to be expressly directed to teacher attention and progress with at-risk youth. Access to in-service or other training, relief from non-teaching tasks, and/or access to supplemental resources ought to be considered as express incentives for the additional effort and skill expended to maximize the learning success of the most difficult to teach students. For example, teachers might be given "vouchers" for agreeing to work with the most challenging students and these could be redeemed for new materials or equipment that could be used during the class. Teachers who demonstrate special success with "harder-to-engage" students should have that achievement reflected in evaluation, promotion, career development, and compensation decisions. Assigning these more qualified teachers to the most challenging schools should be a publicly-recognized priority. At the same time, "educational entrepreneurship" can be stimulated with incentives to encourage teachers and administrators to develop creative new ideas for working with at-risk students.

Two examples of teacher incentive plans are described in Appendix A. In Rochester's Career Ladder plan, the most experienced teachers are given incentives to work in the most difficult classrooms. In Jefferson County, Kentucky, plans are being developed to give teachers rewards for such things as participating in pilot programs, conducting in-service training for their peers, and designing special programs for needy students. The plan is modeled on the airlines' frequent-flyer programs which accumulate points for travel that can be redeemed for rewards. While both of these examples are still in their developmental phase, they illustrate concrete incentive strategies to encourage teachers to give extra effort to the challenging task of helping at-risk students succeed in school.

- Teacher Training and Retraining. In order for all students to succeed in school, it is essential that teachers have sufficient skills, motivation, and that they believe they can teach all children. To accomplish this, they need special training programs that offer them an opportunity to learn new methods for teaching the most difficult students and for responding to the unique developmental needs of young adolescents.

An example of a program directed at teachers which seeks to impart new skills and knowledge is found in Pittsburgh and is described in Appendix A. The Schenley Teacher Center in Pittsburgh gives all high school teachers an intensive 8-week training opportunity that is a kind of "mini-sabbatical" in which they can refresh their knowledge of their content area, learn new teaching strategies, and practice both. A similar center exists in Pittsburgh for elementary school teachers.

o Special Student Incentives for Academic Effort, Attendance and Graduation. Referenced here are a range of concepts and programs designed to encourage and reward academic effort, school attendance and graduation by students at-risk. Although there is little research to establish the most effective approaches to incentives,[16] Public/Private Ventures has identified the following useful principles in connection with their BRIDGE program.

1. Establish measurable criteria for success. The tangible rewards for success -- a test score, grade, prize or privilege -- are bridges to the overall goal of increasing the student's feelings of competence, accomplishment and self-worth. Unusual incentives can be helpful and include small money or gift prizes donated by local businesses, T-shirts, and privileges.
2. Encourage students to determine the spirit and character of the reward system. That guarantees the relevance of the incentives, respects student ideas, and helps create a sense of identity and esprit in the group.
3. Follow through. Make frequent, consistent personal attention and genuine praise a regular part of the classroom experience.

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[16] Unfortunately, the one large-scale experiment on incentives -- the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Project which offered part-time employment during the school year and full-time employment during the summer for those students who remained in school -- had no effect on getting students to stay in school. Little other research evidence is available with which to determine which incentives are most effective with at-risk students.

Some incentive programs employ grade promotion, modification of previously earned failing grades or access to summer job slots as an inducement or reward for student participation in summer school or other special remediation programs. A few teen parent programs have successfully used on-site, subsidized or specially arranged day care as an incentive for continued school attendance by adolescent mothers. More publicized are several recent initiatives that guarantee college scholarships, access to vocational training or full-time jobs to targeted at-risk students who successfully complete high school requirements and graduate. The most well-known of these is probably Eugene Lang's "I Have A Dream" program in which Lang, a wealthy businessman, returned to his elementary school in East Harlem and offered each student in the sixth grade class a scholarship if they graduated from high school. What is less well known is that Lang also hired a full-time social worker to follow this class through their school years, providing encouragement and individual attention and helping the students to solve problems that arose along the way. This program, which is described in Appendix A, has spawned dozens of similar efforts around the country.

Other incentive programs for at-risk students are also described in Appendix A. One, run by the Kroger Company in Cincinnati, provides free groceries and monetary incentives to disadvantaged elementary school students for good attendance, good grades, and positive attitudes. Students can earn up to $1,000 per year toward college tuition. Another is found in the Los Angeles Unified School District and is directed specifically at improving attendance. Acting as "mediators" between school counselors and students, teachers, parents, or friends provide rewards to students who improve their attendance at school. In each of these examples, school districts have recognized the powerful role incentives can play in motivating student performance.

o School-Community Integration. Research has shown that the most successful schools do not operate within a vacuum but rather are integrated into the local social and service environment. The relationship between schools and the community must be a mutually reinforcing one; that is, the community must expect certain performance out of the schools, while the schools should have access to the active assistance of numerous community groups.

The most obvious group of concerned community persons is parents. Parent involvement, through such activities as parent advisory councils, volunteering in the classroom, and attendance at school functions not only helps convey to the student that the parents place a high value on the school, but also bolsters student achievement as well as teacher morale. An example of active parent involvement is the "Parent as Partners" program in Minneapolis, Minnesota, described in Appendix A.

Other forms of community involvement include efforts to utilize volunteer groups such as senior citizen groups or university students in the classroom or after school. One of the volunteer strategies that has gained widespread appeal in recent years is peer counseling: the use of peers to talk with and listen to teenagers who are having personal difficulties. Sometimes the peer counselors are trained in counseling techniques; other times they are chosen for their responsible attitudes and interpersonal skills and are merely paired with more troubled students under the theory that their influence will be helpful and supportive. An example of a peer counseling program is the "Twelve Together" program in Detroit which is a community-based program for selected ninth graders that pairs six at-risk youth with six "not-at-risk" youth in weekly two-hour sessions. (This program is described in Appendix A.)

Perhaps the most common form of school-community integration is the school-business partnership. These partnerships range from simple Adopt-a-School programs in which a company agrees to help a particular school (by, for example, encouraging its employees to volunteer their evenings to tutor students or by landscaping its grounds) to more comprehensive arrangements in which a company and a school join together to provide vocational skills and opportunities as part of the school's academic program. The school-business partnership which is most heralded today as an example of a far-reaching collaboration is the Boston Compact. (See Appendix A.) This subject is explored more fully in Section C of this Chapter, "Enhancing Youth Employment."

Two final types of school-community integration are worth noting. One is the placement of community service workers in the schools. Here, service providers from, for example, community mental health clinics, departments of social services, recreation programs, and employment and training organizations may be located in the schools to address special needs of students. The foremost example of this type of school-community integration is Cities-in-Schools, a national organization that promotes the integration of community and school resources by coordinating public and private support services right in the schools. Currently, 23 cities operate Cities-in-Schools programs across the country. (See Appendix A.)

Use of the local media is a form of school-community integration that deserves note. Some communities have launched city-wide media campaigns to attract public support for the schools or to accomplish a specific structural reform goal. Detroit's "Classroom Partners" for example, established a telecommunications partnership with the community around the issue of school dropouts. An "electronic town meeting" was held in which some 1,500 residents participated in the event either through video hook-up or telephone.

School-community integration efforts have also served to extend and reinforce "teaching" activities beyond the walls of the school. Included here are activities which help students meet learning objectives and maintain competencies outside the classroom or regular school year. Effective programs of this kind include: parent training for homework assistance; homework "hotlines;" and tutoring or academic remediation components integrated into recreational, athletic or job programs.

2. Targeted, Specialized Programs for Potential Dropouts

In contrast to the foregoing general school reform initiatives, most school districts have addressed the problems of school dropouts and under-achievement through highly targeted and specialized programming designed to remotivate, remediate, and retain potential dropouts. Instead of strengthening the mainstream educational environment, most districts have designed special programs for students who are failing, behind grade level or who are disruptive in the regular classroom. These targeted, special interventions have shown some positive ability to improve the skill levels of and prolong school attendance by those youngsters at clearest and most immediate risk of dropping out. As such, they are commendable. And given the likelihood that there will always be some numbers of disaffected or crisis-burdened youth -- even in the best of environments -- such programs are a legitimate component of long-term planning for school reform.

Nevertheless, it has to be observed that these interventions are largely "recuperative." They cannot and are not intended to address the origins or conditions of academic failure, alienation, or teen pregnancy. Instead, they seek to limit the worst consequences that those problems threaten to bring.

If it were impossible to alter the conditions that contribute to youth problems, then targeted responses of this kind would be the essence of dropout prevention. The premise of the New Futures strategy, however, is that earlier, more fundamental, more preventive strategies are not entirely and forever beyond the capacity of American schools and communities. The Foundation is asking communities, with pressing problems and finite resources, to avoid the danger of allowing the investment of dollars, energy and political good will into targeted specialized at-risk programs to become an excuse, reason, or barrier for not making the more basic changes in school environments, allocation policies, and instructional practices that can reduce failure rates in the long run.

Most school districts already have established specialized programs for at-risk youth. The Foundation does not intend for the New Futures sites to suddenly eliminate these specialized programs. Candidate sites can maintain and strengthen them as they prove needed and effective. But the majority of the new resources available under New Futures should be devoted as a priority to more general institutional reforms. It is the Foundation's belief that the specialized targeted programs will be less and less necessary to the extent the mainstream school and community changes are better able to meet the needs of all students. This is not to say that specialized programs will be unnecessary; they may still be the only way to engage some youth even after the general school reforms are in place.

But the number of such youth should diminish as the mainstream institutions become more effective with all students.

The advantage of specialized programs is that they provide at-risk students with more personalized attention in a less threatening environment than in a large comprehensive high school. One researcher identified the following five characteristics of effective dropout prevention programs:[17]

- All have small class sizes;
- All have a committed teaching staff who believe that students who have failed in school and become hostile can be turned around; teachers have high expectations for students;
- All use an individualized non-traditional curriculum;
- All have some type of experiential education or work experience component; and,
- All provide a positive "family" atmosphere among students who are uncritical of each other and who work out problems together.

The Annie E. Casey Foundation is encouraging communities to apply these elements of effective programs not only to their specialized programs for dropout-prone youth, but for all students in the regular education environment.

Examples of targeted dropout prevention programs that are found in almost all school districts -- but which the Foundation urges candidate communities not to rely on exclusively -- can be classified into the following three categories:

- Intensive Remediation Programs. These are characteristically "pull-out" programs during the school year or summer and are targeted on students who are behind grade level or failing. Several studies have shown that summer remediation programs can enhance achievement and reverse the usual "learning decay" that occurs over the summer months. Low student-teacher ratios and computer assisted instruction have been found to enhance achievement gains in many remediation programs.

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[17] Gary Wehlage, "Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student," Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation: Bloomington, IN, 1983.

Four examples of intensive remedial programs are described in Appendix A. (1) The Parker High School "School-Within-A-School" in Janesville, Wisconsin, illustrates a specialized program that pulls academically deficient students out of the regular class with a focus on remediation and personal and career development. (2) A number of such programs use the Comprehensive Competencies Program which is a nationally distributed competency-based computer-assisted instructional program developed by the Remediation and Training Institute. (3) Some remediation programs are targeted on special at-risk population groups such as Washington State's "Secondary Credit Exchange Program" which provides evening and summer classes for migrant students using a self-paced instructional curriculum suited to students with limited proficiency in English. (4) And finally, the Summer Training and Employment Program (STEP) managed by Public/Private Ventures and operating in five cities combines remediation, work experience, and life skills in a summer program designed to assist disadvantaged students ages 14-16.

o Alternative Track Programs. In some instances, alternative track curricula are used to provide remedial instruction. Included here are programs (usually in the high school) that offer academically unsuccessful students a specialized course sequence and curriculum. Characteristically, these tracks involve less demanding academic content and standards and substantial emphasis on vocational training. Their principal intent is to retain students who are in danger of fleeing or being forced out of the more competitive academic mainstream. Some alternative track programs end in regular diplomas, while others are aimed at specialized graduation certificates or GED passage.

- Alternative Schools. Three types of separate alternative schools have become fairly common responses to the needs of at-risk students. The first is the alternative academic high school targeted at alienated, acting-out or otherwise disaffected youth who in their own view or the system's simply don't fit in the regular schools. The best of these are usually characterized by small size, non-traditional classroom environments, low student-staff ratios, a heavy counseling component and promotion of peer support.

Many urban public school systems also operate non-diploma granting vocational schools. Open usually to 16 or 17 year olds, these schools attract students with limited interest in pursuing academic objectives, but with the need or motivation to acquire job skills. In recent years, many school systems have sought to incorporate academic requirements into vocational schools or require a high school degree for admission in order to avoid encouraging students to leave a high school graduation track.

The third type of alternative school includes those for pregnant or parenting school-age girls. Either part or full day, these programs usually include parenting programs, maternal and infant health education, and individual counseling in addition to the academic curriculum. Attendance in some pregnant/

parenting "schools" is limited to one or two years, after which students are expected to return to their home school. Some of the programs which have proven most effective in preventing teenage mothers from dropping out are those with on-site or program-sponsored day care for newborns.

The Foundation believes that alternative schools and special "pull-out" programs should be carefully designed so they ultimately reconnect participating youth to the mainstream educational environment. Districts that separate at-risk youth from other students may have a good reason to do so, but they should weigh the advantages over the disadvantages of possibly stigmatizing the students and absolving the mainstream institution of all responsibility for difficult-to-teach students. In short, communities should state their rationale for "pull-out" or alternative programs and address up-front the goal of returning the youths to the regular environment as soon as possible.

The New Futures strategy adopts a somewhat atypical approach to the prevention of school dropouts and the enhancement of academic achievement for at-risk youth. Instead of the traditional remediation programs or alternative schools, The Annie E. Casey Foundation seeks to make fundamental changes in the way schools are financed, organized, and administered as well as the way teaching is delivered so that even the most marginal students can succeed.

B. Preventing Teen Pregnancies

1. General Approach

Anyone who looks honestly at the consequences of teen pregnancy -- for young mothers, their children, and the community at large -- has to conclude that something must be done. As with other youth problems, however, what needs doing is not simple.

Perhaps most important, communities need to do many of the things suggested in other sections of this chapter. That is, they have to find ways of improving school effectiveness, expanding career opportunity and preparation, and increasing access to supportive adult counsel so that more children approach adolescence with self-confidence, a desire for learning, and real aspirations for their adult futures. As research makes clear, self-esteem, academic success and perceived college or career opportunities are more likely than anything else to motivate the actions and choices that prevent teen pregnancy.

Critical as this perspective is, however, the problem of teen pregnancy is not confined to motivation alone. Young people not only need to have reasons for avoiding pregnancy, they also have to have the ways and means of doing so.

One of those ways, of course, is for unmarried teens to defer sexual activity. Community, church and family efforts to encourage abstinence are a sensible part of any pregnancy prevention strategy. But they are not, by themselves, sufficient. Whatever one's values, the evidence is overwhelming that some significant percentage of teens will engage in sexual intercourse, regardless of the level of community admonition to the contrary.

Accordingly, many communities have decided that any effective plan to reduce pregnancies has to address this reality; these communities have established programs that provide access to contraceptives to sexually active teens. Several approaches have been tried. Adolescent health clinics, which provide, among other services, information about or access to contraceptives have been found to be measurably successful in reducing pregnancy rates. In some places where they have been attached to schools, these have been controversial; here, the schools' direct involvement in contraceptive access or distribution has sometimes been judged inappropriate. In such cases, referrals by school or other programs to free-standing family planning or teen health programs provide an alternative approach. Research indicates that where such referral programs are accompanied by a range of health services, assistance with appointments and follow-up, they can have a positive impact on the incidence of unintended pregnancy.

The New Futures initiative is not predicated on any single model or method of trying to reduce pregnancy among sexually active teens. It does assume, however, that each community will develop a multi-faceted strategy that includes full review of the facts about the need for information and access to contraceptives by these youth.

This applies to boys as well as girls. Indeed, all elements of a community's pregnancy prevention plans -- whether it be motivating pregnancy avoidance, encouraging abstinence, or assuring contraception access -- should be designed on a comprehensive scale, capable of reaching all youth. Pregnancy is not the problem exclusively of females, nor of the economically disadvantaged, nor of minorities. It is a risk shared, in greater or lesser degree, by the entire youth population, and New Futures proposals should reflect that fact.

Just as no group of youngsters has a monopoly on the problem, no part of the larger community is exempt from responsibility for finding solutions. Parents, schools, churches, the media, health care providers, community organizations and youth themselves all need to play a part in any comprehensive assault on teen pregnancy.

Moreover, each of these sectors, along with local political leaders, has a special responsibility to work toward a community consensus on this complicated issue. Teen pregnancy is inescapably controversial. There is no single right answer to all the questions it raises and no single answer should be sought. Instead, a range of interventions has to be accepted and advanced -- a range sufficient to reflect the different ages, different premises, different parental value systems, and different needs of all the community's children.

Described below are some of the promising or proven programs that New Futures communities ought to examine. Arriving at agreement about which of the strategies embodied in them can best be tailored to meet local needs will be one of the key challenges of the planning process and one of the critical tests of the community's capacity to reach a broad consensus on the complex problems that face today's young people.

2. Specific Pregnancy Prevention Strategies

It bears repeating that pregnancy prevention cannot be treated in isolation. A youth's academic progress and his or her perception of adult possibilities have a fundamental impact on reinforcing the desire and decision to defer pregnancy. The strategies described below are illustrations of more targeted efforts to strengthen and enable the achievement of that objective.

Even these interventions ought not be understood as distinct and separate from one another. We have treated them separately for purposes of clarity, but the ideal community strategy would incorporate them into a coherent and mutually reinforcing set of actions.

a. Sex and Family Life Education

Most public school systems can point to some activities, courses or course components devoted to sex education. More often than not, however, the sex education lacks the intensity, timing, continuity and content recommended by experts for maximum effect. Sex educators believe that children should be exposed to information about sexuality in the very early grades as part of a carefully sequenced, developmentally appropriate K-12 plan for sex education.

In recent years, sex education has tended to be conceptualized and taught more broadly as "family life education." Family life education teaches about sexuality in the larger context of information about personal decision-making, relationships, family formation and parental responsibility.

In either variant (sex or family life education), timing is critical. Content needs to be age appropriate. The middle school/junior high years appear to be especially critical. This is a point in the lives of most young people when solid, reliable information about sex, choices and consequences is an invaluable support in coping with their own emerging sexuality and the often confusing pressures presented by their peer culture.

Also important are consistency and intensity. Whether taught separately or integrated into the curriculum (e.g., into reading, science, social studies objectives), education about sex and family life needs to be frequent and substantive enough to be taken seriously. Children are smart enough to notice that the information schools believe is important for them to master is taught often and long. Sex education that is conveyed by an occasional film, an odd hour here or there, or a week-long component of junior high health class will not be perceived as important compared to the many other competing messages students hear.

Assuring effective sex education in schools is essential, because it is the one place in the community where all children can be reached. This does not, however, mean that only schools should be involved.

Useful information about sex, marriage, and family life should also come from parents, churches, community organizations, and health care programs. In fact, program planners should reach out to these groups as many of them are already operating programs for teens. Moreover, community organizations and health care providers may be the only effective way of getting information to some youth: for example, those who are out-of-school or those who are more likely to "trust" what they hear from a worker at the neighborhood center or from a doctor than what they "get from teachers."

This last observation leads to a larger issue. The people charged with educating children and youth about sexuality need to know what they are doing. They have to be able to communicate clearly, frankly and accurately about the subject. This requires special training in reproductive physiology, family sociology, and contraceptive technology. Teachers, counselors, and community organization staff also need access to in-service and other training which includes substantive components on such issues as sexual identity, sexually transmitted diseases, and sexual abuse. Finally, it is important that key staff learn how to present materials in a way that is straightforward, yet sensitive to the knowledge base, family values, and peer environment of the youth they are trying to teach.

Appendix B contains descriptions of several sex and family life education programs. One is found in Irvington, New Jersey, where the Board of Education adopted a Family Life Education program for grades K-12 that had been developed by school district staff with the help of parents and community members. The curriculum starts with a focus on the family in early elementary grades, proceeds to sexuality and peer relations in the upper elementary grades with greater emphasis on dating and pregnancy in junior high, and continues with life planning and parenting issues in high school.

An example of a community-based education program is a "mother-daughter" communication program operated by Planned Parenthood in Boise, Idaho where a series of workshops are held for mothers and their daughters age 9-16. The curriculum covers body image and self-esteem, female puberty, human reproduction, and decision-making, but the program's main goal is to open channels of communication so mothers can continue to talk to their daughters about their sexuality after the workshops are over.

Another increasingly popular approach to sex education is telephone hotlines that provide information to callers about matters related to sexuality. Some hotlines use tape recorded messages rather than a person to answer questions. For example, Delaware's "In-Touch" system is a touchtone telephone tape system in which callers can hear pre-recorded tapes on such topics as adolescent development, sexually-transmitted diseases, pregnancy, and birth control. Each message can be "tagged" to refer calls to another number if they have additional questions. The system is available 24-hours a day to all Delaware residents and is operated by the state Department of Public Health. Each of these programs is described further in Appendix B.

b. Life Planning or Life Options Programs

A life options strategy to pregnancy prevention has been operationalized in several new curricula that seek to place sex education in a context of vocational, career and adult life planning. In essence, life options programs encourage student planning and goal setting for college or a career in order to increase their appreciation of the concrete consequences of teen pregnancy and parenting. Economic consequences are given especially heavy emphasis. Students are led to reflect on the cost of pregnancy/parenthood in terms of shortened education, diminished career options, reduced earnings and more confined lifestyles.

Although most life planning programs are part of school curricula, the lessons can also be built into community-based recreation, job and service programs for youth. Moreover, the strategy can be aided by the media. Messages that remind young people (and the community) of the personal and economic consequences of teen pregnancy can help create a more favorable climate for wise decision-making.

Life options strategies are really an explicit attempt to capitalize on the principle highlighted in the introduction to this section: male and female teens with a positive vision of their own futures are more likely to make the kind of choices that preserve that vision -- including those that prevent pregnancy.

An example of a program that uses a Life Planning curriculum is the Roxbury Comprehensive Community Health Center in Massachusetts. The community health center offers a number of services to teenagers, one of which is a six-week Life Planning course for 12-15 year olds. Professionals and trained peer educators teach the classes and lead discussion groups. (See Appendix B.) Other programs target teen parents -- one of the highest at-risk groups for a second pregnancy -- and emphasize life options in family support programs that include child care and parent education.

c. Abstinence Promotion Programs

In many communities, a broad-based pregnancy prevention effort that did not include components stressing the value of abstinence would be seen as unacceptable. This is understandable. The ability and option to defer or avoid sexual activity ought to be an entitlement for every youngster. Lack of self-confidence, inexperience with sex, and peer pressure, however, often make that "right" difficult to exercise.

In light of that reality, a variety of programs have been developed to help teens, especially younger teens, to learn to "say no." These programs stress the legitimacy of loyalty to personal self-interest or family and ethical values. They frequently include assertiveness training and techniques for coping with peer relationships and pressure. They can be designed as part of school or community-based sex education curricula, media strategies, and peer counseling programs.

Although the impact of abstinence programs on pregnancy is debated, their inclusion in a multi-faceted strategy can add to its overall effectiveness and level of community support.

One example of a program that gives teens and pre-teens the skills and attitudes with which to postpone sexual behavior is the "How-to-Say-No" Project which uses a curriculum called "Postponing Sexual Involvement Series" developed by staff of the Emory University Medical School and the Grady Memorial Hospital Teen Services Program in Atlanta. The curriculum includes components on social and peer pressures, problem solving, and assertiveness training. It is described further in Appendix B.

d. Peer Counseling and Peer Education Programs

Analysts of teen pregnancy issues have long recognized that peer pressure can encourage early sexual activity, avoidance of contraception and even pregnancy. Consequently, several programs have been developed to counter such influence by using peers to reinforce abstinence, contraceptive use, and pregnancy prevention. Under such programs, youth are trained to provide accurate information, counseling, role models and reinforcement to aid and support other youth in making responsible decisions about sex. The programs are targeted on males as well as females and frequently employ schools, community organizations, and the media in their strategies for altering the peer value environment.

Two examples of peer education programs are described in Appendix B. One is in Dayton, Ohio, where trained peer educators meet weekly during school hours with other students to help them become more responsible decision-makers in matters concerning their sexuality. The second, in New Orleans, is a Teen Theater Troupe where public high school students perform plays for other students in which decision-making and values clarification are the subject. Performances are followed by question and answer sessions to increase the involvement of the students in the audience.

e. Adolescent Health Clinics: School-Based or Community Clinics

Even in communities that offer effective family life education, life options programs and reinforcement for abstinence, local leaders and planners will have to address two remaining issues: first, how to help those individual youngsters who have special (and for them crucial) questions about sex, their own body and health care, and appropriate sexual conduct; and second, how to respond to the needs of the significant number of teenagers who already are or will soon become sexually active.

In many communities across the country, adolescent health clinics, either based in the schools or located in the community, have addressed these needs. Adolescent health programs usually provide teens with health information, screening, counseling, clinic services and referral to more specialized service and care providers. Within these comprehensive services, they characteristically offer sex education, sexuality-related counseling, contraception information, access -- directly or by referral -- to contraceptives, and referral to other needed medical/counseling resources in the community. In a few instances, all of these services are offered in a school setting or school clinic. In most cases, school-based personnel provide information, education and counseling but the health care services themselves are provided via referral to community health clinics.

Evaluation research suggests that well-designed adolescent health programs can result in reduced pregnancy rates among the youth they serve.[18] The characteristics of these more successful programs appear to include all the following. First, they are accessible and approachable. Teens know about them, can get to them, and can use them without stigma or embarrassment. Second, they are competently staffed. The information and counseling provided is accurate, objective and sensitive to personal values. The health services are of high quality and respected by the local medical community. Third, confidentiality is assured and honored in accordance with the rights set forth for students and minors by state and federal legislation. And finally, successful adolescent health programs have broad support among community, school, church and political leaders as well as adolescents who use them.

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[18] See, for example, Laurie Zabin, et. al., "Evaluation of a Pregnancy Prevention Program for Urban Teenagers," Family Planning Perspectives, May-June 1986.

Three examples of health clinics are described in Appendix B. One, Spectrum Health Services in Philadelphia, is a community-based health center with a wide range of programs specifically aimed at youth. Clinic hours include evenings and weekends to increase accessibility. Another, the Adolescent Resource Corporation in Kansas City, operates multi-service health clinics in three high schools focused on general health services, nutrition, sexuality, and drug abuse. Although the clinics do not dispense contraceptives, doctors do write prescriptions for them when the student's parents have signed a consent form. A recent evaluation of the clinics showed high utilization rates, declining substance abuse, and increased use of contraceptives among sexually active students.

An example of a program that links school services with a community-based clinic is found in Muskegon, Michigan, where two school clinics and the local Planned Parenthood clinic work together to prevent teenage pregnancies. Health educators from the community and school clinics make classroom presentations in the schools on sexuality education, and because Michigan law prohibits the dispensing of contraceptives in the schools, the school refer clinics sexually active students to the community-based clinic.

f. Male Responsibility Programs

There is increasing recognition that effective and equitable pregnancy prevention efforts have to focus on males as much as females. Efforts to involve and reach males, accordingly, should be built into all program strategies previously described. Even with these efforts, however, it has sometimes proved difficult to fully engage males, particularly and most importantly in programs that inform and encourage contraceptive use among sexually active youth.

As a response to this resistance, some communities have developed more targeted programs to encourage male responsibility. These programs carefully seek credible role models (e.g., athletes, admired male peers or young adults) and accessible settings (neighborhood centers, sports programs) to convey information about responsible sexual behavior, birth control and the obligations of fatherhood. The message given through such programs stress that abstinence and/or condom use are consistent with a confident and mature sexual identity. The purpose is to directly counter peer and other pressures that make intercourse, disdain for birth control and -- in extreme cases - fathering a child a "measure" of male adulthood.

Condom distribution is often a visible part of male responsibility programs. The purpose is to reinforce and dramatize the seriousness of the "educational" messages provided as well as to assure that participants have the practical means to act on those lessons. Other programs have begun to present the legal and financial implications of fathering a child in light of new federal and state child support and paternity identification legislation.

One example of a program that focuses on young males is the "Male Involvement Program" in Detroit, Michigan. Operated by the local Planned Parenthood, the program trained five young men to lead discussions on sexuality and birth control with teenage boys in various community centers. The counselors also hand out written information about clinics and contraceptives to the young males.

The Young Men's Clinic at Presbyterian Hospital in New York City recruits young males to the clinic by videotaping them at sports or community events and then inviting them to the clinic to watch themselves in the video. There the staff -- often medical students -- discuss health related issues with the males, including family planning. They also offer physical exams and distribute condoms free of charge. (See Appendix B for descriptions of both of male involvement these programs.)

g. Integrated Approaches to Pregnancy Prevention

To some extent, the foregoing educational and service activities have been described as if they were stand-alone programs. In most instances, however, that ought not be the way they are organized and delivered. Instead, communities should consider approaches to integrating the separate components of their pregnancy reduction strategy.

The first involves insuring that information, education, counseling and family planning services are coordinated so that they send consistent messages about choices, consequences, and available assistance to young people and the community at large. The components need to be designed so that all elements are accessible to all teens at-risk, which probably means every teenager in the community. One way of achieving these goals is to consolidate all the teen pregnancy prevention services into a single comprehensive program or setting: either a school-based health clinic or a community youth serving center. These settings then become the focal point for the array of pregnancy related interventions. Two examples of such comprehensive programs are (1) the Comprehensive School-Based Program in the Washington Heights area of New York City which offers health care, educational remediation, and social services in two junior high schools; and (2) the Multi-Service Family Life and Sex Education program in Harlem which provides adolescents with a system of daily support and educational services and consistent adult supervision in a range of areas, only one of which is sexuality education. Further descriptions of these programs are found in Appendix B.

A second integrating option is to incorporate the pregnancy prevention components into the broad array of environments, agencies, and services that impact on the community's youth. Family life education, for example, can be integrated into a wide range of courses and curricula at all grade levels. Life options strategies can be made part of the learning objectives in summer jobs programs, recreational activities, and counseling programs as well in the classroom. And finally, counseling on sexuality, screening, information and access to contraceptives can be included as components of all school, community and private health care delivery to teens. While this approach has the advantage of assuring broad reach and reducing the stigma and sometimes excessively "categorical" labels associated with pregnancy prevention efforts, communities need to guard against a dilution or de-emphasis of the specific information, frank advice, and essential services that are needed to reduce the rate of adolescent pregnancy.

Whichever integrating strategy is chosen, teenage pregnancy should be viewed in the context of other youth needs such as basic skill acquisition and employment. Candidate communities should identify the pathways that lead from one program to another so the three pieces of the New Futures initiative can be tied together: education, pregnancy prevention and youth employment.

C. Enhancing Youth Employment

1. General Approach

To help at-risk students become successful, productive adults, the New Futures initiative seeks not only to keep students in school, enhance their academic achievement, and prevent teenage pregnancies, but also to improve their long-term employment prospects. While this latter goal is the subject of this section of the Guide, it must be viewed in conjunction with the other goals noted above and described in the preceding two sections.

New Futures does not seek to address employment goals separate from education goals. In fact, the two are highly interactive: students who stay in school and master basic skills are more likely to find and keep productive employment later in life; and conversely, the perception that there is a tangible job and/or career opportunity available to the student after high school helps motivate school effort, graduation, and even pregnancy avoidance. Hence, the employment interventions that will be included in the New Futures initiatives should be conceived, designed, and implemented -- not in a vacuum -- but in the context of the local education and pregnancy prevention interventions that are simultaneously being developed.

Reinforcing Goals

There are two important implications of this notion that employment interventions should interact with education and pregnancy prevention efforts. First, employment programs should be designed to reinforce the other goals of the initiative: academic effort, graduation, and pregnancy avoidance. In other words, employment efforts should not be designed narrowly to provide at-risk middle and high school students with work experience and job skills. Instead, they should also be used to reinforce the other desirable behaviors as well.

For example, life options programs aimed at preventing teenagers from becoming parents by having them consider their economic futures can be merged with "world of work" orientation programs in middle school grades. Or summer jobs designed to provide work experience to high school students can include a remediation component to prevent summer learning loss and increase basic skill achievement.[19] After school jobs can be used as rewards for school attendance and/or academic progress. Some type of "raises" or wage bonuses could also be provided to students who are working part-time if they make certain gains in school, avoid teen parenthood, and/or improve their attendance records.

And finally, job guarantees or tuition assistance can be offered to students who successfully complete their high school education. Programs like the Boston Compact and Eugene Lang's "I Have A Dream" Foundation have demonstrated the effectiveness of employment and scholarship aid in lowering dropout rates. The Boston Compact, among other programs, has also found that regular recognition programs and awards (such as movie tickets or gift certificates to a fastfood outlet) for good attendance, grade improvement, positive evaluations by employers and the like provide a much needed day-to-day reinforcement for at-risk students to perform well in school.

In short, the goals of New Futures extend well beyond a list of narrow employment-related objectives. The ultimate aim of the initiative is to prompt communities to think creatively about the relationships between employment and education, to encourage them to reorganize their programs and refocus their resources into a strategic system to

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[19] Research has shown that work experience programs provided during the summer which include a basic skill remediation component can prevent learning decay and even increase achievement.

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assist those most at-risk, and to foster the idea of opportunity in the community for those young people who make and keep the commitment to school.

School-Business-Community Partnerships

The second implication of the need to integrate employment interventions with education and pregnancy prevention efforts is that they must be developed and monitored by a community collaborative or partnership that includes a wide range of participants. The typical youth employment network now includes a variety of agencies and organizations which provide some or all of the services required to train young people for the local labor market. Unfortunately, such services are usually part of a largely unconnected network of separate programs, without a central focus that sets goals to address the full range of needs of all youths in the community. In most communities, this "system" is made up of some parts of JTPA funding (typically less than 25 percent of the youth employment total), state-funded programs which are both in-school and outside, vocational education, some adult and remedial education programs, and local non-profit job training or youth service agencies funded by these sources and by foundation, corporate or United Way funds. It is rare that all of the separate youth employment programs have been inventoried, rarer still that they have set common goals, and rarest of all that they have agreed to negotiate as a coordinated network with local businesses.

Communities involved in the New Futures planning process will need to improve the coordination of youth services if they are to develop a cohesive employment and training system. Coordination is critical if youth are to receive the services they need, if educational services are to be relevant to the labor market, and if resources are to be allocated or redeployed appropriately.

The coordinating effort can be brought about either by the New Futures Oversight Collaborative or by a separate group. Its form will vary among the New Futures communities; in some cases it will be the PIC youth committee, in others an interagency task force, elsewhere a separate youth council. In any case, the effort must bring together all those who have a vested interest in the outcome. Participants should include schools (middle and high schools, vocational schools, colleges), youth agencies (training providers as well as those involved in child care, health, welfare, and juvenile justice), the private sector, and other community organizations serving youth through recreational programs or engaged in economic development.

This kind of collaborative must reflect a community's belief that quality education is too important to be left in the hands of any one group. If a community wants to succeed in providing students with the academic and vocational skills needed to adequately prepare for the future, a partnership among business, education, government, labor and higher education must be formed.

The partnership's mission, in general terms is to increase the number of high school graduates with quality jobs or higher education placement. It restores the link between business and education; between school performance and the world of work; and it is based on mutually agreed upon, measurable goals.

Involvement of the business community is critical. Without a commitment of jobs at graduation, few employment programs will gain the credibility needed to keep young people in school. Business involvement is also vital in providing information on the labor market and in developing the political support that is necessary for the survival of any youth program in a time of restricted budgets and federal funding cuts. At the same time, businesses will not commit jobs and dollars without an equally clear commitment from schools to perform their end of the bargain -- usually by improving skills and job readiness of their students.

The product of an effective community-wide partnership should be a significant increase in support for community institutions, coupled with a new sense of accountability for results. For the business community, this should mean a more skilled entry level labor force which directly enhances their self interest.

A crucial role for the coordinating group will be to set policies and plans in motion that efficiently target the available local resources in addition to the New Futures funds. Communities may find that shrinking public funds has already led to some coordinated planning and programming. But generally, most communities will need to reconceptualize their youth employment strategy so it utilizes all possible funding sources.[20]

Business involvement with the schools has taken a number of forms. Three decades ago business involvement focused predominantly on lending personnel to schools to help reorganize, process data, or assist and manage inventory. By the mid to late 1960's business interests in secondary education grew with the onset of adopt-a-school programs involving specific firms participating to varying degrees in improving educational programs of specific schools.

By adopting a school, businesses donate money and/or resources to a designated project and not to general school funds. Activities range from regional to local, and from formal contracts to informal agreements. Initial activities could include tutoring, career exploration, job placement, speakers for classes, assemblies and programs, in-service education by employees, teacher training, club sponsorship, support for renovation, landscaping, building improvement or contributions for incentive programs such as awards, scholarships or prizes. Two Adopt-A-School programs are described further in Appendix C: Tenneco's Jefferson Davis Business School Partnership in Houston and Primerica Corporation's partnership with the Martin Luther King, Jr. High School in New York City.

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[20] The "Practitioner's Guide: Strategies, Programs and Resources for Youth Employability Development," published by Public/Private Ventures of Philadelphia lists some of the major principles the coordinating body will need to undertake in effectively planning to use all potential resources. Their strategy includes consideration of all possible funding, pooling funds, soliciting private contributions, reallocation, and developing challenge grants as leverage.

Beyond the one-on-one contact that many adopt-a-school programs feature, school/business involvement has taken a number of broader forms, including the following:

(1) Industry/education/labor councils -- membership of these include, but are not limited to, local government, civic and human service organizations, and higher education institutions. Examples of these councils include The Boston Compact, The New York City Partnership, Chicago United, and The Atlanta Partnership of Business and Education. In the case of New York City, for example, its members include corporate executive officers of Fortune 500 corporations, presidents of universities, community and labor leaders and the chancellor of the public schools. Members have helped redesign 25 high schools, provided work experience for each of New York City's 300,000 high school students, and provided adult mentors for one-on-one discussions with juniors and seniors.[21]

(2) Revived Chamber of Commerce education committees-- Examples of Chamber of Commerce-initiated programs include The Austin Adopt-A-School Program, the Pinellas (FL) Suncoast Chamber of Commerce, and the Dallas Chamber of Commerce Adopt-A-School Program. In the case of Dallas, as of December 1983, the Chamber's program had matched 173 of Dallas' 178 public schools with business partners including IBM, Hewlett-Packard, and Texas Instruments among others.[22]

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[21] Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Business and Education: Partners for the Future, Washington, D.C. 1985.

[22] Ibid.

(3) Roundtables of business and education leaders -- Examples include the California Business Roundtable and the Massachusetts Business Roundtable. In the case of California, a statewide plan was developed by business and education leaders to address the shortage of quality teachers, remedy a financial crisis at the local school district level, and build community support for the public schools. Business involvement stemmed from their concern over the dwindling numbers of adequately educated and trained entry level employees. The Roundtable focuses on ways to enhance good work habits and to strengthen job search and academic skills. The California state legislature has appropriated $900 million annually to fund these improvements.[23]

These kinds of school-business collaborations illustrate the range of efforts already underway in many communities.[24]

2. Specific Strategies

To effectively meet the requirements of the New Futures program, communities need to develop a coherent system of programs and activities that offers all students a graduated, flexible sequence of employment-related experiences and education. The three major characteristics of an employment system that New Futures communities should include when designing their plans are (a) universality, (b) flexibility, and (c) that it involve a graduated sequence of age-appropriate activities. Each of these is discussed in turn below.

a. Universality

Program participation should be open to all youth, not limited to those meeting a means test or income eligibility. On the one hand, narrow income targeting stigmatizes program participants and limits community support. At the same time, at least some students at all income levels are likely to need assistance in moving from school to work. By opening the program to all youth in the community, young people who need services will have access, while those who do not need assistance need not be required to take part. It may be true that the youth in the most difficulty will receive more resources per capita and it is also likely that many youth and/or their parents will choose not to participate in the program.

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[23] Ibid.

[24] An assessment of exemplary school-business partnership programs entitled "Allies in Education" will be forthcoming in September 1987 from Public/Private Ventures, 399 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA 19106-2178 (215) 592-9099.

b. Flexibility

The New Futures employment system should offer a range of service elements that reflect different interests and aptitudes for different students. As a recent review of youth employment noted, "no single program approach solves all youth unemployment problems . . . a coherent array of programs is usually needed to serve the multiple and varying needs of a community's at-risk youth population." The same study observed what practitioners have been suggesting for years: that programs with several different service "elements" are more likely to produce results than single service efforts -- for example, work experience combined with remediation, labor market preparation or training is more effective than work experience alone -- and that youths' needs tend to follow a sequence by age, with education-based services most appropriate for younger youth and labor market orientated services more appropriate for older participants.[25]

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[25] Thomas J. Smith, Gary C. Walker, Rachel A. Baker, "Youth (Footnote Continued)

By offering a range of service elements, a community makes it possible for students to take part in a relatively individualized progression of services determined according to their needs. For a young, relatively mature student with strong academic skills, that sequence might include job shadowing, summer jobs with private firms, mentor assistance with college application and some form of financial aid. For a less well-prepared student, the program might include a more classroom-based career education and a labor market orientation program, school year and summer remediation, a more gradual progression from community service to public sector job to tryout employment to private sector summer jobs, and placement in a full-time job after graduation. The point is to have the flexibility to meet the needs of young people who are not all equally at risk. Communities should design their employment strategies both for youth who choose to go on to further education after high school and those who want to work after graduation.

c. A Graduated Sequence of Activities

A local New Futures initiative should include a graduated sequence of age-appropriate activities that starts early (in the middle school grades), gradually increases in intensity and in the type of services offered, and ultimately provides a job guarantee or tuition assistance for graduates. In such a system, one step leads to another. That is, the system will give students the message: "if you enter and move from one step to the next, you will in the end be assured of one of several positive outcomes."

(Footnote Continued)
and the Workplace: Second Chance Programs and the Hard to Serve," (Public/Private Ventures, March 1987).

A sequenced set of activities would be designed to provide appropriate interventions throughout the student's school years, starting perhaps in middle school. Beginning in seventh or eighth grade, the services might initially consist of knowledge of the world of work programs tied to compensatory basic skills acquisition. During the summers, work experience or recreation programs could be supplemented by education. In the first two years of high school, public or non-profit after school job placements could be provided which are conditioned upon adequate school attendance and performance. Again, supplementary education could be made available on the job placements and/or in the summer.

In the last two years of high school, private sector placements could be provided, and combined, in the senior year, with job clubs and other transitional activities. For some youth these placements would be after school and in the summer. For others they would be much more tightly integrated into the school experience, providing a substantial apprenticeship-like experience. Upon graduation, youth who wish to work would be guaranteed jobs. The program should continue to keep in touch with these youth for one to two years after graduation, providing services both to the youth and the employer. These services should ensure that the jobs have the potential for upward mobility and stable employment, and assist youth in their plans to obtain further education if appropriate.

In designing such a program, planners should acknowledge the fact that different youth will move at different paces. Some youth, for instance, may need or be ready to work earlier, while others may enter work at a slower pace and, stay in non-profit placements for an extra year. Although the services should be individualized to meet the unique needs of each student, students should have the sense of moving, both as individuals and as a cohort, through a structured set of steps which will in the end lead to an assured job or further education.

3. Illustrations of a Universal, Flexible, Graduated Employment Strategy

Although there is no single operational model of a community-wide employment system for youth that is universal, flexible, and forms a graduated sequence of activities, several of the individual components are being implemented in a number of programs around the country. What follows is the Foundation's best sense of what an effective employment strategy might look like, with examples referred to wherever possible to illustrate how other communities have designed youth employment programs. The following sequence is used only as an illustration of one type of graduated employment strategy which communities should tailor to their own local needs.

New Futures communities should begin their employment strategy with middle school students. In early adolescence, employment is not the most important activity -- basic skills learning is. Most employment programs at this point are of doubtful utility on their own terms. They need to be used to introduce the world of work and to deliver other, mostly basic skills, services.

Hence in junior high -- seventh or eighth grade -- during the school year, various programs can teach students about the work world. Some of the programs that are commonly used to do this include job tours and job shadowing.

In the summers following seventh and/or eighth grades, students can be offered a recreation or employment experience combined with basic skills instruction for those students who need it. Several programs now do this, such as the STEP program managed by Public/Private Ventures and mentioned earlier in Section A of this Chapter. STEP combines intensive remedial instruction, work experience and life skills instruction for disadvantaged youths ages 14 to 16 during two consecutive summers. Some 750 students participate in the program in five cities, and initial evaluation findings suggest that participating youth gain academic ground compared to other youth who do not receive the basic skills instruction. (See Appendix A for a description of STEP.) A similar summer remediation program, although targeted on slightly older students, is the New York City Grantmakers Summer Program which is also described in Appendix C.

In the ninth and tenth grades, regular career development classes which emphasize the diversity of occupations, the nature of the labor market, and the socio-cultural reality of work could be provided.

Most tenth graders can be provided with part-time school year employment experiences. These can range from internships and unpaid volunteer work to job placements in public sector and non-profit organizations. The objectives are largely educational and include career exploration, teaching work habits, and continuing basic skills learning, sometimes in job settings. Financial support (in the form of wages) is a worthwhile objective but should not drive the program. It is extremely important that the hours of these programs be carefully designed so as not to interfere with school work.

The summer program at the end of ninth grade might also be largely in public and non-profit agencies and would have the same set of objectives. Tenth grade summer placements may also include private sector jobs, and to the extent needed, both programs may continue to include basic skills instruction.

An example of such a program is the BRIDGE project, a national demonstration operating in five cities which provides year-round educational remediation, job skills, and life skills instruction to ninth and tenth graders testing below grade level in reading or math. Students receive academic credit for up to 10 hours per week of remediation, job skills and life skills instruction during the school year. In each of two summers following the 9th and 10th grades, the youth receive at least 80 hours of classroom work and paid employment. (See Appendix C for a further description of BRIDGE.)

Eleventh and twelfth graders may move into private sector job placements during the school year as well as the summer. It is at this point that it may become appropriate to more formally distinguish between several different approaches.

For youth who are clearly bound for college or further education, the placements provide work experience and financial assistance.

For youth who are not likely to continue on to further education, there can be two paths:

- Many students will hold the jobs after school or, at the most, be released from school an hour early to go to work. For these, the object of the placement is both to provide incentives to remain in school and graduate and also to learn work habits and minimal skills needed for jobs after graduation.
- Other youth who are clearer that they are not going to college at least immediately, or who simply cannot function well in school, will spend a much larger fraction of their time in job placements -- on the order of two to three days a week -- or in special school-within-a-school vocational programs. For these youth, substantial modifications in traditional curriculum may be required, but the expectation should be that these youth will graduate both with a high school diploma and with substantial job skills attested

to by a formal certificate of some sort.

For those who youth are in this latter apprenticeship/cooperative-education program, it is important to assure that real skill training is provided on the job and this will require careful structuring of the job experience and close monitoring. It is also important to assure that there is coordination between activities on the job and during the time spent in school, and that the essentials of the high school education are provided.

An example of a school-within-a-school program that provides comprehensive, integrated training in specific vocational areas is the Philadelphia High School Academies. This is a four year school-within-a-school program which gives students training in specific vocational areas including technical, job search, and job retention skills. It provides qualified students with access to part-time work/study employment opportunities while maintaining basic skills instruction in the curriculum. In addition, the California Legislature has funded ten Academy programs modeled on the Philadelphia High School Academies in ten school districts in California. (For further description, see Appendix C.

An example of a program that provides jobs to 11th and 12th graders during both the summer and the school year is "Teen Opportunities Promote Success (TOPS)" in Birmingham, Alabama. Students work during the summer after 11th grade and during the school year and attend special classes that teach them career awareness, job search skills and appropriate work behavior. (See Appendix C.)

As mentioned in the section on specialized dropout prevention programs, the Foundation wants to encourage communities to direct the bulk of their resources to more general institutional changes rather than these targeted programs. The school-within-a-school models noted above may be necessary and effective, but they should not be viewed as the single solution to the problems of at-risk youth.

Throughout the junior and senior years, but particularly in the senior year, additional transitional services can be provided to youth. These might include efforts such as job clubs, additional vocational orientation, sessions organized to provide a forum for talking about on-going work experiences, extra skill training (e.g., computer skills) as needed, etc. Two programs that seek to help juniors and seniors make the transition to the world of work or post-secondary education are Jobs for America's Graduates and Career Beginnings. The former provides basic employability skills and private sector job placement to high school seniors. Job specialists work closely with at-risk students to identify career interests and opportunities and to instruct them in good work habits and attitudes as well as the basics of finding a job. (See Appendix C.)

In the Career Beginnings program, aspiring high school students are matched on a one-to-one basis with mentors from area businesses and community organizations. Mentors may provide general information on working life and careers. Specific assistance with job applications or planning for higher education, and emotional support for students attempting to make the transition from school to work. Drawn from a wide array of businesses and occupations, mentors reinforce the idea that education leads to opportunity and provide further support for a young person continuing in school. (See Appendix C.)

Two examples of programs that guarantee jobs to high school graduates are the Boston Compact and the Partnership Project in Portland, Oregon. The Boston Compact, described earlier in Section A of this Chapter, is a series of agreements between Boston's business, university and labor communities and the Boston Public Schools to improve access to jobs and higher education for Boston students who improve their performance in schools. Students who graduate from high school who choose not to go on to college are given priority in local hiring. (See Appendix A.) The Partnership Project in Portland, Oregon, although a much smaller initiative, also places participating students in full-time jobs after graduation if they choose not to enroll in college. (See Appendix C.)

Each of these two programs include a post-graduation follow-up year where students placed in full-time jobs are monitored to help assure their success. That follow-up process serves a number of critical purposes. First, it provides continued support to participants, helping them to make the adjustment between school and work. Second, it offers an element of quality control, insuring that job commitments are kept, that placements are appropriate, and that the jobs offered include a reasonable career ladder. Finally, only through a follow-up process can the impact of the New Futures system be evaluated and program designs be modified to increase their effectiveness.

In summary, a universal, flexible, and graduated employment strategy as part of New Futures might contain the following sequence of services:

1. During 8th or 9th grade, youth receive orientation to world of work programs.

2. During the summers of 9th and (as appropriate) 10th grade, youth receive work experience placements combined with remedial education programs.

3. During the school year of 11th and 12th grade and in the summers, youth receive private sector job placements.

4. During the 12th grade, youth receive school to work transition programs and assistance. Those youth interested in college receive counseling and other forms of assistance.

5. After graduation those youth interested in working are offered private sector jobs which meet acceptable standards in terms of future career prospects.

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6. For one or two years after graduation, the program remains in touch with the youth and the employers, offering and brokering assistance as necessary.

The commitment made to youth would be that if they stay in school and meet some agreed upon goals, the community promises they will receive supplementary education (as needed), jobs during the school and summer, and either employment after graduation or assistance in attending further education.

4. Implementation Issues

The Annie E. Casey Foundation has identified four general principles for implementing a comprehensive employment program under New Futures:

a. Program implementation should start small and build as experience and management capacity grows. Communities should pilot test their programs in one or two schools to limit the risks inherent in a new program and to gain experience before expanding services city-wide.

b. While limiting the number of sites, implementation of all the program services -- seventh and eighth grade through high school -- should take place during the first year. Rather than waiting for the first seventh or eighth grade cohort to advance through the program, services should be instituted for all grade levels from the beginning. Each community will need to make its own decisions on what percentage of resources to devote to which age groups, consistent with New Futures emphasis on early intervention. While complicating implementation, there are compelling reasons for a broad approach to age groups. First, it is politically important to demonstrate services for older youth -- those who will soon be graduating and entering the labor market. Second, the business community's interest and involvement as partners and providers of jobs cannot be suspended for the four years it would

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take for the first cohort to age. Businesses must begin connecting with the schools and their students from the beginning. Third, younger students need to see that the program is real and offers a full set of services if they are to make a commitment to it early on. Finally, by starting services in the first year, important experience in program operation and management will be gained.

Where it is not possible to initiate employment program services through a five or six grade range, an alternative approach is to begin services for several cohorts -- for the seventh, ninth and eleventh grades, for example. This approach allows implementation to be spread over several years while still aiding older youth, providing relatively immediate benefits, and demonstrating the progression of services that will ultimately be offered.

c. School personnel -- administrators, teachers, guidance staff -- should be involved early and regularly in program planning. Programs linking school and work require hundreds of daily accommodations -- in scheduling, testing procedures, alterations in curriculum, etc. Without the active support of the staff at participating schools, programs are likely to get bogged down by turf battles, resistance to new procedures, and administrative red tape. In many cases, program experience suggests not only the early involvement of school staff in planning, but the location of program components in the school and the hiring of educators (current and/or former teachers and counselors) as school-based coordinators or liaisons.

d. All of a community's resources must be tapped to provide a full range of programs and services. No single funding source, including the grants made by The Annie E. Casey Foundation for New Futures, can support

> the array of services required by an effective youth employment system. Nor can foundation grants provide the longer term funding stability that such a system needs. Rather, New Futures project administrators need to use the Casey grants to leverage existing community resources such as JTPA's 8 percent education grants, Title IIB summer jobs funds and Title IIA training monies; mainstream, adult and occupational education resources; Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) funds, as well as local foundation and corporate grants. Foundation funds, in turn, should be used to fill the gaps between existing resources and to provide services not allowed by existing funding sources.

With this broad framework of program elements and implementation strategies, many variations are possible. The activities that can be incorporated into world of work education, remediation and work experience strategies, and the terms of the bargains or partnerships struck by business communities and schools can and should differ from city to city, based on the nature of the youth population, the inventory of existing programs, local resources and priorities, and local judgments of which approaches are most likely to work.

While the specific New Futures approach will vary from community to community, one element will be common to every site. In every community, tangible changes in the current practices of local institutions will have to take place: budgets and operating practices will have to be reorganized; incentives will need to be provided for students, for teachers and for business people to change accustomed ways of working; jobs will have to be provided for program participants and graduates; budgets will have to be reallocated for schools and other service agencies, the real skills of entry-level employees will have to be improved to convince business people that their participation is an investment. For New Futures to work, in short, communities will have to make a commitment to act; mere rhetoric will not suffice.

D. Designing a Comprehensive Case Management System for Youth

1. Overview

To grow up successfully, every young person needs access to adult support, assistance and advice. In addition to love and caring, adults are essential sources of the reinforcement and approval on which discipline and self-esteem depend. They provide the information that help youth identify choices and anticipate consequences. They are the role models and examples that shape a child's own adult aspirations. And, very often, they are problem-solvers -- the ones who sort out a young person's needs and see that they are met.

Assuring that every youngster -- and particularly those at-risk -- has access to these adult supports ought to be reflected in every New Futures proposal. In fact, a number of programs devoted to this end have been established in recent years. In some cities, voluntary and social service agencies have developed parent education programs designed to help mothers and fathers offer more effective care and supervision to their children. School systems have initiated somewhat more targeted activities aimed at increasing parent awareness and involvement in their child's academic progress. Parent-child study night, regular teacher conferences, and homework hotlines are among the vehicles being used.

On a more general level, big brother/big sister programs serve to link potentially isolated youngsters with adult companions who offer both supportive friendships and adult role models. A number of school-to-work programs have begun to incorporate a "mentor" component -- an adult volunteer who helps a youngster learn about the world of work, job options and career preparation. The "Career Beginnings" program (described in Appendix C) sponsored by the Commonwealth Fund and operating in 21 cities is an example of a program in which a mentor is paired with a disadvantaged high school student to provide support and guidance on the transition to post-secondary education or full-time employment. And finally, many of the reforms associated with the Effective Schools movement are intended, among other things, to foster richer, more supportive relationships between student and teacher.

Invaluable and important as these kinds of programs are, however, they are not a total answer to the needs of at-risk youth. From the perspective of a community that is seeking to intervene early in the lives of at-risk youth and to offer more effective and integrated responses, there remains a need to assure that some single adult is willing and able to support each youth in order to meet his/her diverse needs over time.

First of all, someone -- somewhere in the community -- ought to be responsible for keeping track of the circumstances, progress, and problems that may put a particular child in jeopardy. Someone needs to be paying attention to the "big picture" in the lives of these youth. For many at-risk youngsters, that does not happen now. A freshman math teacher may notice that Tommy has quit doing his homework and is falling behind. His older sister may be worried that he is hanging around with the wrong crowd. A playground worker may know that some older kids used to call Tommy "brainiac," because he liked to read a lot. And a county case worker may know that Tommy's mother is an alcoholic. But none of them knows what the other does and none knows enough to guess that Tommy is feeling pretty panicky and is quietly preparing to run away.

Even if they did know, none of them may have the time, knowledge or authority to do anything about it. Paying attention to a student's needs is only part of the equation; someone also has to be responsible for finding the ways to meet them. This is no casual challenge. As shown earlier, a host of problems can place a student at-risk. For one youngster, it may be family stress or a pregnancy. For another, a sense of incompetence in school and drug abuse in the streets. In still another, a lack of work experience and summer unemployment may be the key problems. There may be solutions to these problems, but somebody has to know where to find them and how to use them. Someone, in other words, has to have a working knowledge of available community resources -- from special school programs through family counseling, drug abuse treatment to job placement services.

To expect a single community worker to master the whole array of available resources that relate to potential youth needs may seem overwhelming. However, to expect a youth-in-crisis or his/her often stressed parent(s) to negotiate unassisted, the maze of agencies, programs and eligibility rules in order to get the help they need is, truly, to ask the impossible.

Even having someone pay attention to a teenager's needs who knows where to find services will not completely fulfill the need. That someone also has to have the ability -- the authority -- to see that the necessary help gets delivered. He or she, in other words, has to be able to get service providers to react to a student's needs, coordinate their responses when more than one is involved, and provide feedback on overall progress to all who are working with the youth.

All of the foregoing, of course, points to a system of comprehensive case management for youth and their parents. The terminology is probably accurate, but it is used here with reservation since the words "case management" can mean many different things to different people. In the human service field over the last two decades, case management systems have often been launched with great expectations only to produce even greater disappointments. Professionals familiar with those failures will be understandably skeptical of case management's potential in serving at-risk youth. Others may associate "case management" with highly formalized and mechanical systems in which bureaucratic "gatekeepers" steer dependent "clients" through a labyrinth of paper and programs. That, needless to say, is not what is meant here.

Despite its checkered history, there is at the heart of the concept of case management an absolutely critical principle: someone should be responsible for bringing multi-system resources to bear on the particular needs of multi-problem individuals. It is, moreover, the absence of just such a function -- of such a responsible person -- that explains why so many communities, rich in services and good intentions, have so many unserved and unsuccessful young people.

The concept of case management is thus one of the required components of a New Futures plan. Unfortunately, there are few operational examples or models for New Futures cities to look at in designing their own case management programs. Many forms of case management already exist in New Futures candidate communities; they abound in mental health, special education, and long-term care programs, but few, if any, pull these special resources together on behalf of at-risk youth in the community. Elements of case management, of course, are built into a number of existing youth-serving roles -- school social worker, guidance counselor, youth advocate, teacher-advisor, and family case worker -- but rarely have these professionals had the comprehensive responsibility across the whole range of youth problems or the authority across the whole spectrum of youth serving systems that is being proposed here.

In order to help communities think through the design of a workable case management strategy, the following sections attempt to lay out some of the central elements and issues. Covered are the essential functions of a youth case manager, authority issues, qualifications, and suggested approaches to implementation. These are not, it should be stressed, inflexible prescriptions or a final blueprint. They are instead illustrations of how a case management system might be structured to assure earlier intervention, improved access to services, and a more integrated community response to at-risk youth. Cities which conclude that a different approach to case management using existing resources or agencies will more effectively or efficiently achieve these ends are encouraged to plan accordingly. For New Futures, however, what needs to be emphasized is the indispensability of the case management functions.

2. Key Functions of a Case Manager for Youth

The following are the key functions of a case manager in the New Futures initiative.

a. Keeping Track of Students

The case manager should be responsible for maintaining up-to-date "profiles" of each of the young people he/she is assigned. The profiles should include basic data about a youth's general academic achievement level and a history of any special problems or needs previously encountered.

The important part of this profiling function is not the record it yields so much as the process of keeping track of the student. Case managers need to spend time interacting with the students in their charge, talking to family and peers, consulting with teachers and others involved with the child, and reviewing pertinent records. Out of these activities should come an early sensitivity to patterns, problems or needs that could be placing a youngster at increased risk of failure, dropping out or becoming pregnant. These observed or potential problems then become the signal for action.

Keeping track of youth should not just focus on problems; case managers should also make use of students' untapped abilities, seeing to it that their strengths are fully utilized.

b. Developing Plans for Individualized Intervention

When a case manager uncovers a risk, need or other obstacle to achievement in a student, he/she should be charged with promptly putting together an action plan to address it. The plan should state the problem, identify the kind of help or service needed, specify appropriate providers, and establish objectives for the intervention. Intervention plans should be developed with the active involvement of the students themselves as well as teachers, school staff or others who either know the youngster or are in a position to provide the needed help.

Intervention plans, it should be added, are not static documents. They should be periodically reviewed and revised to reflect progress toward objectives or the need for different service responses.

c. Arranging for the Delivery of Services

In addition to deciding what needs to be done, the case manager has to be accountable for seeing that it gets done. In some cases, the case manager may deliver the planned assistance directly. He or she may be the most logical person to provide the counseling, information or supervision needed by a particular student. In other instances, the case manager may link the student with other professionals -- for example, through enrollment in a drug abuse treatment program or via referral and follow-up to a teen health clinic. Part of the case manager's role will be to assure that these other service providers have a full picture of the youth's needs and, further, that they know how other parts of the system (e.g., teachers) are seeking to assist the young person. This "coordinating" role is particularly important. It helps assure that youngsters at-risk are getting consistent messages and that multiple services achieve a maximum reinforcing impact.

d. Advocacy for Youth and for System Improvement

The case manager should not only be actively involved in protecting and advancing the rights of students, but also should explicitly advocate for system reform based on individual youth experiences.

In the course of assessing student needs, arranging for services and monitoring outcomes, the case manager will doubtlessly encounter a variety of system shortcomings. He/she will frequently be in a position to see how certain policies and practices of, say, the schools or law enforcement agencies may actually contribute to youth problems or risks. It may, for example, be clear to the case manager that automatic suspension for truancy does not succeed in compelling better attendance, but more often accelerates dropping out. Similarly, case managers may be in the best position to identify major gaps in the service system through their observation of youth needs for which there is no available or adequate community resource. Case managers should be expected and empowered to use their experience and insight as an advocate -- not only for specific students -- but for broader system and policy reform as well. They should be called upon to play an active part in on-going school, community and agency planning and evaluation processes designed to improve their responses to at-risk youth.

A case manager who properly fulfills each of these functions should have helped move an at-risk student along his/her route to graduation and successful post-secondary experience. New Futures case managers should be judged successful when their students complete high school, demonstrate basic academic skill proficiency, and go on to post-secondary education, full-time employment, or join the military.

3. Prerequisites for the Effective Functioning of a Case Management System

a. Workable Caseloads

The case management functions described above ask one person to do a great deal on behalf of a group of young people. The case manager is expected to know and keep in touch with each of the students he/she is assigned. For those youngsters with special needs, an individualized plan has to be developed, implemented and monitored. To be effective, considerable time has to be spent with these youths as well as with their family, teachers, and others. The advocacy role, if it is to be more than a token role, requires time as well. The point here is simple. The number of students a case manager works with has to be small enough to permit intensive individual attention to the adolescents. If it is not, the job may become meaningless. Like too many other overloaded case management systems, it risks degenerating into a perfunctory management task that does little for clients or for service delivery, except adding paperwork. Some guidance counselors, for example, with adequate staff development investment, may become case managers, but not at their current caseloads of 300 students and not without considerable reorientation as to their functions.

There is no "right" formula for determining the number of students to be assigned to each case manager. Age of the students, incidence of need among them, and the availability of complementary support services are among the factors to be considered. It may be, for example, that persons with certain skills or experiences can work with more students than others, or it may be that case managers in certain schools can handle larger number of students because the students in one school have fewer needs for intensive services. The local community will have to take these and other factors into account when assigning students to case managers.

b. Continuity of Contact Over Time

To be most effective, case managers should stay with the same group of students for as long as possible. Over a period of several years, say from seventh grade through graduation, case managers can become well acquainted with a group of young people. They can come to understand their specific strengths and weaknesses, values, peer influences, and personality factors with a greater depth than is possible in only one or two years. Continuity of contact also enables the formation of significant child-adult relationships. The case manager can become a sounding board for problems, a trusted source of advice and support and a relief from the anonymity and isolation that too many at-risk adolescents experience.

Enabling this valued continuity between case manager and student will not be easy. For one thing, it means devising organizational arrangements that allow case managers to "follow" a group of young people across institutional calendars (school year to summer to school year) and between institutions (from middle school to high school to first job). This mobility will have to be imposed on organizational conventions that assume professionals stay put while students move past them and on the challenge of highly mobile student populations who may move within the city several times in a few years.

Continuity will also require special efforts to minimize turnover among case managers. Salary, benefits and other incentives will have to be sufficient to encourage qualified individuals to remain in case manager positions for a period of at least five years. Special problems of "burnout" will also have to be addressed because of the stressful nature of the job.

c. Flexibility in Location, Hours and Decision-Making

To perform the functions noted above, case managers need wide latitude in deciding where to be and when. Expecting them to be in school from 9 to 4 will not work. Access to working parents will mean many evenings spent in homes. Managing one youngster's crisis may mean all day Saturday at the police station. And coordinating eight service plans could mean a dozen meetings a week with the staff of agencies all over town. Accountability systems are essential of course; but those systems have to reinforce what case managers are supposed to do, not prevent it.

Comparable latitude has to be given to the case manager's decision-making. He or she has to feel and be responsible for determining which youngsters are in need and what ought to be done to help them. Subjecting case managers to an overly standardized approach to needs assessment or to pre-packaged responses to particular problems undercuts their very purpose. It erodes the possibility of highly individualized interventions and reduces the level of personal accountability for youth outcomes -- features which are the heart of case management itself.

d. Authority Over Multi-System Resources

Perhaps the most critical requirement for success is the case manager's leverage and authority over resources and services. If identifying needs and developing service plans are to be meaningful tasks, case managers have to be given the power to get the services delivered. Their access to agencies and programs has to be assured; their decisions about what a youth needs and when he needs it have to be honored; and their role as coordinator of multiple services has to be consistently acknowledged.

None of this will come easily. The recreation director may not want to hear that he has to find another slot in the Saturday basketball program. The vice principal may not feel that a particular sophomore ought to be released early on Wednesdays to participate in a new work experience program. And the social service agency may not think it can add another family to its intensive therapy program within a week. Each of these "providers" may have good reasons for their reluctance; nonetheless, they have to be made to feel some obligation to accommodate the case manager's request, or else the case management will end up an empty process.

How can this obligation be created? How, in other words, can a case management function be empowered with a measure of control over the decisions and resources of several separate and independent public and private agencies? The answer is inescapably political and demands an unusual degree of leadership. Local government leaders, the school board, state human service officials, and private agency directors will have to agree to delegate some measure of influence over their respective systems to the case management function and to set aside resources to meet its needs. The extent of that delegation, of course, will be limited by law and reasonable self-interest, but even within those constraints, it is still possible to create a powerful case management role.

In the long run, however, the power that may be initially invested in case management by political negotiation has to be reinforced and sustained by organizational location. Case managers have to work for someone; someone has to hire, fire and pay them. The dilemma is how to locate this function without making it a captive or agent of where it is placed. Will a city emergency assistance director feel obligated to a case manager who works for the school board? On the other hand, would a principal listen to a case manager employed by the Recreation Department in a controversial expulsion hearing?

It may be possible to overcome these customary territorial barriers by explicit interagency agreements or a memorandum of understanding among key community leaders. The history of some similar efforts, however, suggests they can be more often honored in the signing than in the implementation. If a negotiated agreement is sought, means of monitoring its results for specific youth must be included. A more durable solution may be to have the case managers directly accountable to a formal collaborative organization, governed by representatives of the community's major youth-serving systems. (A collaborative of this type is discussed in the next chapter.) Under this arrangement, a case manager might be "officed" in a school or neighborhood center, but, ultimately, accountability would be to a board that included the mayor, superintendent, PIC chairman and so on. A variation of this would be to provide case managers through an interagency team made up of employees of several systems but accountable to a single leadership group, including representatives of all agencies whose workers are involved.

Still another, even more radical, alternative would be to grant case managers control over an annual service budget based on the number and age of youth in their caseload. These funds could be used at the case manager's discretion to purchase services from various community agencies on behalf of a youth. The availability of this kind of discretionary money might minimize the importance of organizational location, increase the case manager's access to community resources, and improve his or her ability to respond to unique, individual needs. Admittedly, this approach raises significant accountability challenges, but its potential usefulness may warrant discussion and perhaps experimentation. A community unwilling to change the accountability of its youth serving agencies in any way may be unable to rise to the challenge of making the changes necessary to improve the futures of at-risk youth.

Whatever approach a community opts to take, the issue of defining and fixing the authority of the case management function will prove critical to its value for at-risk youth.

4. Qualifications and Training of Case Managers

In addition to proper design and sufficient authority, the success of the case management function will depend on the competence and skill of persons who carry it out. Decisions about recruiting prospective case managers or redeploying existing personnel to that new function need to be made in light of the experience and knowledge demanded by the job.

It would probably be a mistake to assume that some category of current professionals could be simply relabeled and redeployed to become effective case managers overnight. Although the ranks of school social workers, resource and regular classroom teachers, guidance counselors, and youth agency case workers may include able candidates, a wholesale conversion of such staff to case managers ought to be weighed against a more selective process that screens for the distinct qualifications that make case managers effective.

One critical qualification is the capacity to communicate and relate to at-risk youth. Encompassed here are difficult to measure but important interpersonal and communication skills, including the ability to inspire trust and confidence in youth, to form constructive relationships, and to serve as a positive role model. Sensitivity to peer values and environments and an appreciation of ethnic and cultural influences are important elements of this capacity to relate to youth.

A commitment to young people and an ability to work independently are other important qualifications. Acceptance of the irregular hours, intrusive demands, and the high degree of accountability for consequential decisions inherent in the case management function require candidates to have a genuine commitment to at-risk youth. Tests of that commitment include previous work choices, full awareness of the extraordinary demands imposed by the job, and a strong desire to assume those challenges. Self-discipline, creativity, and initiative are also essential qualifications.

It should also be noted that some districts may choose to use informal community leaders to supplement the formal case management program. For instance, a particularly effective resident manager of a housing project may be able to help see to it that Johnny Smith gets to school on time in the mornings. Or an activist pastor may be helpful with another group of youth, spending time with them individually. These types of informal relationships can play a part in a community's overall approach to address the needs of its at-risk youth.

Case managers also need access to quality orientation and training. The range of skills necessary in this position exceed those of most youth serving jobs. Many of the required skills are not even touched in most social work curricula or clinical training programs. Accordingly much of the effectiveness of the system will depend on the availability and relevance of on-going training. At a minimum, training should cover the following:

- Orientation to community resources, including comprehensive information on the range of available public and private agencies, resources, services, programs relating to youth. Desired here is a working familiarity with a wide spectrum of youth serving agencies, entitlement programs, the juvenile justice system, employment training and placement programs, school services and the public and private health care system. This familiarity should extend to the programs and services offered by each agency, eligibility requirements, cost-sharing policies, special skills of staff and their respective approaches to particular problems and needs.
- Orientation to clinical and service strategies, including basic information about "best practice" approaches to specific academic remediation, drug, alcohol and mental health needs.
- Case documentation and recordkeeping, including techniques for recording personal, problem and progress data on individuals in a manner that will assist other professionals involved with the child and assure accountability.
- Individual and system advocacy, including core information about entitlements, legal rights, and due process procedures as they apply to youth. Also deserving coverage are basic materials on the local planning processes through which schools, local government, and key agencies arrive at policy and budget decisions and how best to have an impact on them.

- Orientation to youth empowerment, including self-help, competency building and moving away from continued dependency on the case management function. Similarly, skills in helping parents learn how to negotiate the system can help empower these families.

5. Implementing a Comprehensive Youth Case Management System

Even if community leaders can agree on the functions of the case manager position, the appropriate authority to invest in it, the organizational location, and job qualifications, several challenges remain in putting the system in place. Some of these include the following:

- Assignment of Students to a Case Manager

  Communities should consider the dangers of labeling students when developing their case management systems. Local planners should carefully weigh the trade-off between targeting only the most at-risk students, thereby maximizing resources, and making the system more universal so it is available to all students and thereby more useful in *preventing* problems.

- Building in an Accountability Mechanism

  Because of the substantial amount of flexibility and discretion that has to be given to case managers if they are to be effective, it is especially important that accountability measures be built into the system from the outset. These may involve incentives where case managers are given rewards for successful performance. Some system of routine supervision as well as procedures for careful recordkeeping are needed to assure that the autonomy and flexibility accorded to case managers are not abused and that objectives are being met.

- Designing a Phase-In Plan

  Since finding the money, people, and final form for the case management system may take some time, New Futures communities may want to consider a phase-in plan. In doing so, planners should be especially careful not to over-extend resources. Creating large caseloads or using unqualified personnel in an effort to cover more students sooner is a poor compromise that could defeat the impact of the intervention altogether.

One of the ways of building a case management capacity that meets the concern outlined above is to gradually extend it over the community's adolescent population. For example, in year one, the system might cover students in one-half of the 8th grade classes. These case managers would follow their cohort group over the next five or six years up to and following their graduation. In year two or three, all incoming 8th graders in the system might be covered by the case management system. The same pattern could be followed in subsequent years until all pupils in grades 8 through 12 were covered.

6. Program Examples

Three examples of case management systems targeted on youth are described in Appendix D. (Again, the reader is reminded that these sample programs are not models to be replicated but merely illustrations of existing attempts to address a particular local problem.) The first, New York City's Dropout Prevention Program, places teams of professionals from community-based organizations in the schools to serve as case managers for students referred to the team.

In the second example, the RECAP program in Boston uses a freed-up staff person, outside agency worker, or paid parent to spend 2 1/2 hours every morning in the school working as a case manager for selected students.

Although not a strict case management program, Norfolk's Teacher-Advisor program provides individualized support services to middle school students at a ratio of 15-20 students per teacher-advisor. The teachers meet with their groups twice a week for 30 minutes each, and spend additional time with individuals who need assistance and their parents whenever necessary.

The foregoing discussion of programmatic strategies likely to help at-risk students become successful, productive adults is intended to help candidate communities develop their own plans for a local New Futures initiative. To develop sound programmatic strategies, however, will require a careful and thorough planning process which is the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

The New Futures Process: Planning, Administration and Management

A. The Community Planning Process

B. Designating a Lead Agency

C. Data Requirements and Goal Setting

D. Developing a Budget

CHAPTER III: THE NEW FUTURES PROCESS:

PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

The preceding chapters have dealt largely with questions of content: what are the problems of at-risk youth and what are the most promising intervention strategies? This final chapter turns to issues of process. It sets forth general suggestions about how to plan and how to administer a New Futures strategy, including specific guidance on the information system elements needed for stating the problems, setting measurable goals, and monitoring implementation.

A. The Community Planning Process

1. Participation

The New Futures strategy requires broad, inclusive and high-level participation in the planning process. It is expected that government, employers, schools, youth serving agencies, parents, churches, community organizations and youth themselves will be active participants in the major decisions made in a community's New Futures proposal.

Inclusive community participation is not being recommended for its own sake. Instead, it is a practical necessity. Very simply, people and agencies who are not involved in helping to define a problem are unlikely to be involved effectively in solving it. The New Futures program operates out of a central premise that youth issues are not the exclusive responsibility of any one agency, but of the whole community.

Schools cannot resolve at-risk youth problems by themselves. Nor can parents, the Urban League, clergy, city government, the state social service department, the Private Industry Council, the Chamber of Commerce, the teachers' union, the United Way, the mental health center, the local university, advocacy groups, nor the county public health department. Each, however, has essential resources to contribute and each has a role to play in determining how their collective resources can be directed toward a more integrated and coherent effort to reduce dropouts, teen pregnancy, and youth unemployment. If a community genuinely believes the problems of at-risk youth to be a priority, then the resources of the entire community, not just a few agencies, will need to be brought to bear on the problems of at-risk youth.

It should also be clear that participation in the planning process is more than a pro-forma obligation for the various sectors. The New Futures planning process is not intended merely to create a study group mechanism or a forum for information sharing, however useful that may be. Instead, it is expected to be a vehicle for substantive and collective negotiations and decisions -- decisions that spend real money, address controversial issues, alter agency budgets and priorities, create new policies and programs, and change the locus of authority within and among community institutions. Obviously these are matters that cannot be fully addressed by casually chosen designees or staff members with time on their hands. Real involvement has to come from senior decision-makers: the mayor, union leaders, CEO's, the school superintendent, private agency directors, state policy officials, school board members, juvenile court judges, officers of the PTA, and the leaders of grass-roots community organizations. Without this level of representation, community planning will not have the prestige to create a visible community priority on youth, nor will it have the political authority to convert that priority into meaningful institutional reform.

It is important that state policy-makers be part of the local New Futures planning process for several reasons: support from state officials may be necessary if, for example, waivers are required for the local initiative; and state officials can be helpful in disseminating information about the local effort.

Admittedly, this planning process adds up to an ambitious task for any community. Many cities may have had some experience with multi-lateral working groups (e.g., business-PIC-school committees on summer job programs; teen pregnancy task forces), but few will have undertaken as comprehensive a process over the breadth of youth issues as is envisioned in New Futures. The Annie E. Casey Foundation has no illusions about the difficulty of making this work. In fact, as important as any other objective in the Foundation's lengthy site selection process has been the goal of finding communities willing and able to undertake a genuinely collaborative and inclusive approach to planning new institutional responses to at-risk youth.

2. Structuring the Planning Process

A good deal of thought is required in structuring a planning process in which normally independent entities are expected to come to consensus decisions that blend their respective interests and resources. At a minimum, the structure for such a process has to be seen as neutral; that is, it has to be independent of the control, interests or specific perspective of any one of the participating sectors.

One option may be the creation of a formal "planning/ oversight collaborative" -- that is a new organization governed by a board of participating sector representatives, whose purpose is to carry out the community-wide planning and oversight functions involved in the New Futures initiative. A formal collaborative of this kind might also be the appropriate structure for managing new cross-sector, integrating activities like the comprehensive case management system described in Chapter II.

Another option could be the designation of an existing organization in the community that has a reputation or capacity to serve as a neutral convener for an inclusive planning process. In some communities, a planning council, a local foundation, an existing broad-based special commission, or a youth advocacy organization has had experience in playing that role and would offer a viable forum.

A third possibility would involve the formation of an informal ad hoc consortium for planning purposes. With up-front agreement among participants on process goals, operating procedures, and convening responsibilities (e.g., rotating chairs), this structure may be sufficient for developing the initial New Futures proposals.

Whatever route is chosen, it is the ends that are important. Will the structure be inclusive? Will it promote consensus? Will it enable substantive commitments and decisions that carry weight among the participants?

In summarizing, it is worth noting that the community's collaborative planning structure or the convening organization need not be the lead agency responsible for managing money or resources during the operational phase of a New Futures project. In fact, it is probably wiser to leave that decision to the planning process itself, rather than try to anticipate it in the choice of a planning structure. The Foundation does not intend to dictate an organizational model for the planning process or the recipient of grant funds. There is a strong presumption, however, that successful communities will be those able to come to some agreement about which agencies and organizations will play what roles.

3. Staffing the Planning Process

Developing a New Futures proposal -- conducting the problem analysis and designing interventions -- will entail a tremendous amount of work. Data on youth problems have to be collected, organized and analyzed. Existing services have to be inventoried, mapped and evaluated. Option papers for new programs, interventions and policies may have to be written and discussed. Budgets and governance decisions have to be made. And, all of it has to be incorporated into a clear, coherent written plan within a short time frame.

This means frequent meetings, substantial imposition on the time of planning participants, and -- not least -- good and adequate staff support. Putting together a sound New Futures plan will require staff who can write, who know at-risk youth issues, who are familiar with community services and resources, who understand management information systems, and who can facilitate group process and decision-making.

Finding and freeing up such people is a critical first step in the planning process. More than likely they will need to come from various community agencies and sectors. They may be hired by the collaborative, employees of the convening organization, "loaned" to the planning group, or some combination of the above; but whatever the arrangements, there have to be enough people with a sufficient range of skills and authorized to take a community-wide perspective to convert available data along with the experience, insight and commitment of participants into a practical proposal. If these staff persons are merely given new tasks as part of New Futures planning without being freed-up from other duties, the community runs the danger of not being able to provide the level of effort required for a successful planning process.

Continuity of staffing is also important, as past demonstration efforts have shown that many suffered from high turnover of key leadership. Local New Futures plans may want to address explicitly what incentives for leadership stability could assure continuity over the five years of the initiative.

4. Planning for Implementation

Planning needs to build upon earlier demonstration projects in dealing explicitly with the lessons and the problems encountered in their implementation. Earlier efforts are an important historical element of the constraints faced by any project as broad as New Futures. As part of the planning process, communities should list those factors that affected earlier projects and that may be likely to be barriers for the New Futures effort. It is, in part, the seriousness of the effort to identify these inevitable barriers and address how they might be overcome which the Foundation is interested in learning.

An implementation analysis might deal, for example, with resistance from staff whose assignments may change; with policy leaders' problems in sustaining commitments over a period as long as five years; with difficulties in hiring new personnel; with media misunderstanding of the goals of the project; and/or with problems in freeing up key leaders so that they can concentrate on New Futures and not be diverted to a host of other issues. These are all recurrent implementation issues which the planning process needs to anticipate and address rather than waiting for these problems to emerge after implementation begins.

5. Fostering a Spirit of Cooperation

The most tightly structured planning process, with the best conceivable staff support, will fail utterly if the participants' attitudes toward the process are inconsistent with its goals. The New Futures initiative is intended to help all sectors of a community reach a degree of consensus on a set of cooperative interventions, institutional reforms, and joint investments that can improve long-term outcomes for at-risk youth. The process requires a willingness to face up to controversial issues, to make difficult choices among competing priorities, to hear out all perspectives, to give up a measure of autonomy to a broader decision-making process and to compromise. Participants who come to this effort with a paramount concern to advance a pet project, enlarge their own programs, refight old battles, or protect turf will only succeed in subverting it.

6. A Continuing Role for the Planning Collaborative

For those communities selected to implement a New Futures project, the role of the collaborative planning group will not end with the receipt of a Foundation award. Whether they are organized into a formal legal entity or as an on-going committee, the members of the planning group will need to meet periodically throughout the course of implementation.

The on-going functions of the Oversight Collaborative should include: (1) providing continuing policy oversight to the project; (2) promoting interagency cooperation and resolving disputes or problems among the youth serving systems; (3) monitoring overall implementation progress; (4) proposing and approving revisions or expansions of the plan; (5) providing linkages and visibility to sustain a community priority on at-risk youth; and (6) advocating for state, local and private resources to sustain and strengthen interventions initiated under the project.

In some cases the collaborative may be formally incorporated and, as such, have permanent staff who are responsible for day-to-day management of the initiative. In other cases, those operational and management responsibilities will be lodged in a separate organization -- designated as a "Lead Agency" for the project. The particular role and functions of the lead agency are the subject of the following section.

B. Designating A Lead Agency

Each community must designate a lead agency or agencies accountable to the Oversight Collaborative to assure overall management and coordination of the fiscal, audit, programmatic and reporting components of a New Futures project. The lead agency will serve as the Foundation's routine point of contact during the course of the initiative and will be accountable for assuring compliance on behalf of the community with all Foundation requirements. Among its other functions are the following:

- The lead agency will be responsible for overall management of the New Futures initiative. It must see to it that tasks are carried out as planned and on time; it must assure that interventions are coordinated across the several participating organizations and agencies; and it must initiate revisions to the task plan when they are warranted.

- The lead agency will be responsible to the planning/ policy collaborative for reporting on the progress and any problems encountered during the course of the initiative.

- The lead agency will be responsible for developing -- with the assistance of the independent evaluator -- and maintaining the management information system. The lead agency must assure that all parties to the system are contributing to it and using it; i.e., that it is a truly integrative information system that cuts across several agencies. The lead agency must also assure the reliability of the data in the system.

- The lead agency will be responsible for providing annual narrative and financial reports to the Foundation as well as financial audit reports on an annual basis.
- The lead agency will be responsible for assuring that the independent evaluators gain access to the information necessary to carry out their evaluations. This includes information from all sectors of the community -- public and private agencies -- and may involve helping the evaluators to obtain permission for accessing information while assuring confidentiality.

The Foundation does not intend that the lead agency should be the single power broker that controls the New Futures agenda. Nor is it asking communities to collapse several existing autonomous agencies into one centralized power center as the lead agency. Instead, all relevant local agencies and organizations must be involved in the decision-making as represented by the Oversight Collaborative, but one agency must be responsible for managing the initiative. It is this agency that will be called the lead agency while recognizing the vital substantive roles other agencies must also play. In short, the Foundation expects candidate communities to balance the tension between inclusiveness on the one hand, and accountability on the other.

Given these responsibilities, it is important that the community select a lead agency that has the capacity to manage, coordinate, and monitor local activities across several service systems. This agency should have credibility in the community, be willing to seek inclusiveness in planning and implementing a New Futures initiative, and be able to work with multiple local agencies and organizations. It must have strong financial management skills in order to assure accountability to the Foundation for its monies expended under the initiative. The Foundation believes that wide-ranging projects such as the New Futures initiative often succeed or fail largely because of the management capacity of the lead agency, so it intends to evaluate each proposal on the strength of its lead agency.

C. Data Requirements and Goal Setting

1. Overview

The success of the New Futures initiative depends heavily on the quality of information systems that are developed in and among the participating sites. For one thing, adequate information systems will prove critical to the participating communities themselves. To develop better interventions and more responsive policies, communities need reliable information about the incidence and trends in youth problem indicators. They need to know what groups of youth are affected by these problems and they have to have information that tracks who is getting what services and with what outcomes. Only with a managed data system will communities succeed in accurately defining their problems, establishing meaningful and measurable goals, and gaining the feedback needed to modify and strengthen their interventions over time.

Secondly, the Foundation needs to assure that there are adequate information capabilities in each New Futures city. This is not only because the Foundation has an obvious interest in tracking the impact of the community interventions it helps fund, but also because of the larger public policy implications of the entire initiative. It is hoped that the experience of these five communities will produce some generalizable insights on the problems of dropouts, teen pregnancy and youth unemployment as well as on what policy and institutional reforms appear to make a difference. For that to occur, however, there has to be a common language and common measures to describe the problems at issue. If dropouts mean five different things in five different places, if only two of the five cities keep any track of achievement patterns, and if no systems exist for tracking the scale of new interventions, then it will be virtually impossible to draw or convey any usable lessons from the initiative. The solution to these problems lies in at least some elementary standardization of data elements and information collection in each of the target sites. Those "core" requirements for local information system elements and capacity are spelled out in the next section.

2. Basic Information Requirements

In addition to information on the nature and utilization of new interventions, New Futures cities will be required to collect, maintain and report on the data elements described and defined below. Information on each of these elements is to be collected and reported using both a cohort rate and annual rate by grade level. Cohorts are grade level groupings of students whose membership is locked in on a specific date. For example, each September 30th, the seventh grade class should be established and then followed, with each student's status (e.g., in-school, dropout, employed, GED, etc.) continuously monitored and changes recorded. This cohort number can then always be used as the denominator for each grade, making it possible to compare various measures across cohorts, schools, and even districts.

Second, information on each of the elements is to be collected and reported using an annual rate for each grade level. Each fall, the students in a specific grade will be established and monitored through the following fall. All annual rates will then be calculated based on the past year's student activity.

Third, it is important to break out each data element by race, sex, and school. It will not be sufficient to report dropout rates, for example, for the whole school district; rather, the community should be able to tell which specific schools are making the most progress and which the least. Among other things, this will enable the Oversight Collaborative to target further assistance to those schools that need it the most, or to revise certain policies in those schools that have not been able to lower their dropout rates.

The Foundation recognizes that this information will be enormously difficult to obtain since many students do not remain attached to any community institution once they drop out of school. However, tracking this information on individual students is an essential part of the New Futures initiative and is vital to determine the effects of the local project.

Required Data Elements

The following elements must be collected in each New Futures site:

(1) Dropout rates for each grade cohort, (7-12), by race, sex, and school. The Foundation requests that each site adopt the definition of a dropout and the method of calculating a dropout rate provided in Figure 1, at the end of this Chapter, so these will be comparable across sites.

(2) Graduation rates for each grade cohort by race, sex, and school. The Foundation requests that each site adopt the definition of a graduate and the method for calculating a graduation rate provided in Figure 2, at the end of this Chapter.

(3) Attendance and Suspension rates for each grade cohort by race, sex, and school. For a definition of attendance rate, see Figure 3 at the end of this Chapter.

(4) Achievement Test scores by race, sex, and school. The Foundation will accept whatever standardized test data the district already uses.

(5) Grade Retentions and Course Failures over time for each grade cohort by race, sex, and school.

(6) Employment, Post-Secondary Education, and GED rates after high school by race, sex, and school, over time. The city will follow students for two years after their anticipated date of graduation to find out whether they have become employed, for how long, at what jobs, and with what earnings, whether they have gone on to college or some other post-secondary education, or whether they have completed an alternative course of study (e.g., a GED).

(7) Pregnancy and birth rates for all girls grades 7-12, by race, sex, and school.

Figure 4 (at the end of this chapter) shows the sequence of data collection and calculation activities for dropout and graduation rates to be carried out in each local site. More specific instructions will be forthcoming from the evaluation contractor after the Foundation selects the final New Futures sites.

A Note on Management Information System (MIS) Capacity

For some cities, establishing and maintaining an information system compatible with the requirements outlined above will entail some intensive MIS work. It may require the site to hire or designate several staff persons specifically responsible for the data collection, manipulation, and reporting tasks that will be necessary under the New Futures initiative. It is important that this task be taken seriously and not relegated to an already over-burdened data unit where hectic daily affairs can overtake the important task of on-going and thorough data collection and management.

3. Goal Setting

The foregoing information requirements have significant and immediate implications for the New Futures planning process. In the Application Instructions, each candidate city is required to adopt at least the following three goals that relate to the overall goal of enhancing the futures of at-risk youth:

a. to increase school attendance and graduation rates while also improving the basic academic skill level of at-risk students;

b. to decrease youth unemployment and inactivity;

c. to reduce the incidence of adolescent pregnancy and teen parenthood.

Communities may add other subgoals to these three as long as they pertain to the overall goal.

Adoption of these goals means more than simply restating or affirming them. Rather it is expected that each candidate city will translate those goals into specific commitments to measurable, monitorable, time-specified changes in outcomes for at-risk youth. A community, for example, has to translate the goal of improved academic achievement into some objectively measurable and monitorable changes in the performance of some group of students. To illustrate, if current norm referenced reading tests indicate that 47 percent of a community's tenth graders are one or more years behind grade level, a commitment to reduce that percentage to 42 percent in 1989, X percent in 1991 and Y percent in 1993 would represent one useful local reformulation of the overall goal. Moreover, this would constitute only one of several possible formulations of the goal. Others might include such things as reductions in the percentage of eighth graders annually "retained in grade" or specified improvements in the tested math competencies of participants in a summer jobs program.

The same process of measurable reformulation applies to the goals of dropout reduction, pregnancy prevention, and improved youth employment. "Reducing dropouts," in other words, has to be expressed in scheduled reductions in such things as the percentage of entering ninth graders who permanently leave school before graduation. If that percentage is currently known to be 38 percent, a commitment to reduce it to, say, 25 percent for "the class of 1993" represents a potentially monitorable formulation of the goal.

Several points need to be emphasized here. First of all, goal formulations need to be reasonable. That is they have to reflect realistically what is known about current problem measures and trends and the specific new interventions and reforms being proposed under the initiative. Take, for example, a community which knows that 13 percent of its teenage females got pregnant in 1984 (compared to 11 percent in 1980). Say the community has decided to introduce a life options program into the middle schools in 1988 and open a clinic in each of the two high schools in 1989 and 1990 respectively. Reasonable goals for this community might be: maintaining the 13 percent rate in 1988, reducing it to 12 percent in 1989 and achieving a 7 percent rate by 1993. In contrast, a commitment to a 5 percent rate in 1989 would be unrealistic. It would betray a lack of understanding of both the problems and the proposed interventions, it would misrepresent the potential of the initiative to the local public, and it would fore-ordain a failure.

The second point is a simple technical one.

Meaningful, useful goals have to be related to data, measures, and management information systems that will be available during the course of the project. Setting a goal to reduce by 30 percent (over three years) the dropout rate among pregnant girls may be an admirable and sensible objective, but it is meaningless if no one knows the current dropout rate in this population or if there is no system in place for identifying who and how many girls get pregnant or what happens to them. Similarly, setting an academic achievement goal in terms of performance on a norm referenced test that may not be used in three years is to risk an equally empty commitment.

The last point to be made here is more complicated. In the preceding section, we described the basic requirements for defining and reporting dropout rates, teen pregnancy rates and youth employment rates. It would clearly be desirable for each community to formulate its goals in terms and measures compatible with these required information system elements. This would ensure some measure of comparability in talking about problems, goals and progress across all sites.

In requesting this, however, we realize that some candidate communities do not now use the definitions we are imposing, nor do they have current access to the data necessary to create an accurate baseline. Nevertheless, these communities should try to extrapolate from whatever information is available tentative goals that employ the required definitions and measures. For example, each community should develop goals for "graduation rates," even though it may never have kept such data and thus can only estimate its current baseline "graduation rate." Similarly, each city should establish teen pregnancy rate goals despite the fact that it may have few accurate data on the existing rate. In time, these tentative goal commitments can be adjusted -- without sanction -- to reflect "real" baseline data generated by new information collection efforts.

D. Developing a Budget

Each of the five New Futures sites will be expected to make a 1:1 match of Foundation funds. Twenty-five percent of the local match must be new money; 75 percent can be redeployed money and in-kind contributions.

One of the most valued features of a local site's budget is that it reflect multiple sources of funds integrated into a coordinated effort. The budget should not represent autonomous streams of money, repackaged for purposes of the New Futures initiative; instead, the project should be thought of as a unified effort supported by a consolidated pool of resources that originates from several different sources.

The terms "new money" and "redeployed money" deserve clarification. The Foundation expects the five local communities to make a major investment of their own in this initiative, and one way to demonstrate the level of this commitment is to appropriate new money for it. The new money could come from any number or combination of sources such as city or county tax revenues, school levies, state discretionary funds, federal grant funds, United Way, or private sources such as local corporate grants or other foundation funding. The important point here is that the monies must be new dollars that, in the absence of a New Futures initiative, would not have been spent on youth. Where there are substantial differences in tax capacity and tax effort, the Foundation may take these into account.

"Redeployed money," in contrast, refers to monies that are explicitly redirected to new activities under the New Futures initiative. These are existing funds that are not now administratively or programmatically linked to the specific New Futures goals and strategies. Redeployed funds could take several forms: they could be money or staff positions or other in-kind contributions. In some cases, it may be easier administratively to redirect personnel instead of actual money, and this would be acceptable if it serves the same purpose and directly assists youth under New Futures goals.

Several illustrations of redeployment are useful here. As an example, a community might decide to redirect some of its summer jobs funding to link with a year-round program that provides employment and training services in conjunction with the schools and the local business community. This redeployment could result in a longer term and more comprehensive program. Or a community might decide to redeploy some portion of its state/county social service funding (Title XX) that now goes to support counseling and instead use it to support part of a new youth case management system. A community might estimate, for instance, that of the $200,000 in Title XX money now going to counseling, 15 percent is used for adolescent counseling services. It might then be able to redirect $30,000 of that amount to a higher priority counseling or case management initiative under New Futures.

Other examples of the many funding streams that could be redeployed to the New Futures initiative include the Maternal and Child Health Block Grant and the Primary Prevention Block Grant. Both are federal funds that flow through the states to localities for such services as teenage pregnancy prevention and adolescent health services. Redirecting a larger portion of these monies to the New Futures initiative could be an appropriate use of the funds. Title XIX, Medicaid, is another source that could be tapped, especially for certain case management services to low income adolescents.

Several sources of education monies might also be considered for redeployment. For example, some districts may be able to avoid non-supplanting restrictions and redirect part of their Chapter 1 Compensatory Education monies to a New Futures initiative. Or Vocational Education funds which are often targeted on high school students who are not doing well academically could be integrated with a longer term employment education program that may begin as early as grade 8. This program, combined with other components of the New Futures initiative, might reduce the need for as many students to take traditional Vocational Education in high school.

The precise funds that a community decides to redirect to its New Futures initiative will, of course, depend on the nature of its interventions and its existing budgets. This is one reason why the arduous task of profiling the community service system is a necessary part of the planning process. Of course, any funds redeployed will have to be expended in conformance with federal, state, and/or local regulations that apply to those resources, or waivers will have to be granted.

In developing their budgets, it is important for the candidate sites to keep in mind the fact that the Foundation places a high value on the willingness of major youth serving funders to combine their resources into an integrated budget. Proposals which pool multiple resources are valued for at least three reasons. First, it increases each agency's sense of commitment and ownership when it is contributing to the project. Second, assuring a variety of funding sources makes it more likely that the effort will be perceived as a true community-wide endeavor rather than just a school project or a youth employment project. And perhaps most importantly, a range of funding sources makes it more likely that support for the initiatives will be continued beyond the period of The Annie E. Casey Foundation involvement.

It is also important for the local sites to keep in mind the Foundation's decision to score higher those proposals that offer the largest contributions. The Foundation wants to reward those communities that are willing and able to make a substantial commitment of resources, especially with respect to the "new money." Again, the larger the contribution, the greater the community commitment evidenced and the more likely it will be that the city will continue the initiative after the period of Foundation support ends. Moreover, larger local contributions will be more likely to develop the critical mass of effort needed to result in improved futures for youth.

Finally, communities should keep in mind when preparing their budgets the need to make them correspond realistically with the scope of the proposed interventions. It should not be an artificial budget made up purely to meet Foundation requirements.

The Foundation intends to hold the community responsible for achieving its objectives within its own budget. The budget should therefore correspond to the timetable in the task plan and should appropriately reflect any phase-in of activities.

Conclusion

The Foundation recognizes that the tasks it is asking selected communities to undertake as part of the New Futures planning process alone are extraordinarily challenging, as well as time and resource consuming. Clearly what is required here is well beyond the scope of most Foundation-sponsored initiatives and will tax even the most committed and sophisticated of cities. But the choice is a deliberate one on the part of the Foundation, for it strongly believes that anything less than the full and vibrant commitment of a city's leadership and its youth service workers will not succeed in helping vulnerable, at-risk children and youth move into productive futures.

While some of the planning tasks identified in this Guide are formidable, the Foundation expects the candidate communities at least to begin the difficult process of assessing problems and designing what might be very exciting, creative and strategic new approaches to build new futures for at-risk youth.

Figure 1

Dropout Rates

The following definition of a dropout was developed by the Task Force on Collecting National Statistics on Dropouts convened by the Council of Chief State School Officers in an attempt to standardize the way districts and states should report dropout rates. Because of the critical role dropout rates play in the New Futures initiative, the five sites will be required to use the following definition of a dropout and to collect and report their dropout rates according to the following guidelines.

Dropouts

A dropout is a student who (for any reason other than death) leaves school before graduation without transferring to another school/institution.

Below are some groups with respect to which practice has varied in the past. They are grouped according to whether they should or should not be counted as dropouts.

YES: Include in Dropout Count

- Students who enter the military
- Students who are expelled and are not known to enroll at another school
- Students who leave school and enter a program not qualifying as an elementary/secondary school
- Students who leave school between terms and are not known to enroll at another school
- Students of any age who drop out (by the definition)
- Students from Special Ed and other special, ungraded or alternative programs who drop out (by the definition)
- Students who have an unexplained absence for more than 15 days

NO: Do Not Include in Dropout Count

- Students who die
- Students who are out of school for less than 15 days with unexcused absences, e.g., by suspension, extended illness
- Students known (by a transcript request or other information) to transfer to:
  - a public school
  - a nonpublic school or other state-approved educational program, that is, a program that continues the student's education on a (full-time basis) e.g., home-based instruction
- Students known to be transferred/shifted to another public institution, e.g., prison, juvenile institution, mental institution
- Students who move to another grade level

Figure 1 (cont'd.)

Total Student Count

Total Student Count is counted in the fall and includes all students on the school rolls who have been physically present in the school building for at least one day. It is not an attendance count but an unduplicated count of those registered.

Below are some groups with respect to which practice has varied in the past. They are grouped according to whether they should or should not be counted.

YES: Include in Enrollment Count

- Students in special programs or ungraded programs, e.g., Special Ed, alternative public school programs
- Students beyond the compulsory school age who have not graduated
- Students who are temporarily out of school because of extended illness, supsension, etc.

NO: Do Not Include In Enrollment Count

- Students in nonpublic schools
- Students in public institutions other than elementary/secondary schools, e.g.
  - prisons
  - mental institutions
  - juvenile institutions
  - adult training centers

Calculating the Dropout Rate

Each of the New Futures sites will be asked to count the number of students in the fall of each year (as most districts now do). The number of students defined as dropouts through a 12-month period is divided by the total student count, as defined above, to arrive at the dropout rate.

Figure 2

Graduation Rates

The following definition of graduates is taken from the Council of Chief State School Officers' Task Force on Collecting National Statistics on Dropouts:

Graduates

A graduate is a student who completes his/her program of study in a public or nonpublic secondary-level school.

Below are some groups with respect to which practice has varied in the past. They are listed according to whether they should or should not be counted as graduates.

YES: Include in Graduate Count	NO: Do Not Include in Graduate Count
o Any student receiving a certificate of completion (or other designation) conferred by a public educational institution to indicate that the student has completed his/her program of study, e.g., - certificate of attendance - completion of IEP by Special Ed student - completion of secondary level Voc Ed program - completion of state-approved full-time, alternative secondary school	o Any student leaving school and completing GED or other high school equivalency outside of a state-approved and full-time secondary school (for instance, the student takes a GED preparation course several hours a week)

Calculation of Graduation Rate

Each of the New Futures sites will calculate a current graduation rate by dividing the number of students who graduate (defined as above) by the number of students counted in the enrollment of the ninth grade class four years prior. We are assuming that most districts count enrollment in a way that is fairly similar to the recommendation in Figure 1, so they should be able to compare the first year's graduating class with their ninth grade enrollment figures of four years ago. To the extent their enrollment count practices are very different from this recommendation, the first four years' data may not be comparable to those collected after the fourth year.

Figure 3

Attendance Rates

Calculation of Attendance Rates

Average daily attendance (ADA) will be calculated in each of the New Futures sites. The number of days that each student is present in school is divided by the number of days it is possible for a student to be in school. So, for example, a student who was in school during the month of September and then transferred out on October 1 would add 20 days to the "days possible" denominator for his cohort and if he/she was absent, say, 2 days during September, would add 18 days to the numerator. In formula form:

$$\text{ADA} = \frac{\text{days present}}{\text{days possible}}$$

Figure 4

Sample Timeline for Dropout and Graduation Rate Calculation

Year 1 (1988-89)		Year 2 (1989-90)		Year 3 (1990-91)		Year 4 (1991-92)		Year 5 (1992-93)		Year 6 (1993-94)	
Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring
7th grade count for Class '94	No report	8th grade count for Class '94	Dropout rate reported for 7th grade	9th grade count for Class '94	Dropout rate reported for 8th grade	10th grade count for Class '94	Dropout rate reported for 9th grade	11th grade count for Class '94	Dropout rate reported for 10th grade	12th grade count for Class '94	Dropout rate reported for 11th grade
8th grade count for Class '93	No report	9th grade count for Class '93	Dropout rate reported for 8th grade	10th grade count for Class '93	Dropout rate reported for 9th grade	11th grade count for Class '93	Dropout rate reported for 10th grade	12th grade count for Class '93	Dropout rate reported for 11th grade	Graduation rate for Class '93 & dropout rate for 12th grade[a]	
9th grade count for Class '92	No report	10th grade count for Class '92	Dropout rate reported for 9th grade	11th grade count for Class '92	Dropout rate reported for 10th grade	12th grade count for Class '92	Dropout rate reported for 11th grade	Graduation rate for Class '92 & dropout rate for 12th grade[a]			
10th grade count for Class '91	No report	11th grade count for Class '91	Dropout rate reported for 10th grade	12th grade count for Class '91	Dropout rate reported for 11th grade	Graduation rate for Class '92 & dropout rate for 12th grade[a]					
11th grade count for Class '90	No report	12th grade count for Class '90	Dropout rate reported for 11th grade	Graduation rate for Class '90 & dropout rate for 12th grade[a]							
12th grade count for Class '89	No report	Graduation rate for Class '89 & dropout rate for 12th grade[a]									

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[a] Graduation rates are calculated in the Fall following graduation to pick up students who may have had to go to summer school following 12th grade in order to graduate.

APPENDIX A

Education Reform and Dropout Prevention Program Descriptions

School Improvement Process (SIP)	Hammond, IN
Region 7 Middle School	Detroit, MI
Career in Teaching Plan	Rochester, NY
Teacher Incentive Plan	Jefferson County, KY
Schenley Teacher Center	Pittsburgh, PA
Willard De-Tracking Program	Berkeley, CA
Noe Middle School	Louisville, KY
"I Have a Dream" Foundation (IHAD)	East Harlem, NY
Kroger Company Incentive Programs	Cincinnati, OH
Attendance Incentive Programs	Los Angeles, CA
Parents as Partners	Minneapolis, MN
Twelve Together	Detroit, MI
The Boston Compact	Boston, MA
Cities-In-Schools Program	Multi-Site
Detroit's Classroom Partners	Detroit, MI
School-Within-A-School, Parker High School	Janesville, WI
Comprehensive Competencies Program (CCP)	Multi-Site
Secondary Credit Exchange Program	Washington State
Summer Training & Employment Program/STEP	Multi-Site
Murray-Wright High School Day Care Center	Detroit, MI
Reducing the Gap in Black-White Achievement	Alexandria, VA

Target Population: Hammond, Indiana School District

Program Overview: Structural changes in the decision-making process with growing authority in the hands of school-site committees composed of teachers, administrators and community representatives.

General Approach

Beginning in 1985, the Hammond School District adopted a school-site management system as one component of its School Improvement Process (SIP), a general school reform effort. Decisions that were once made by the school district's central office were turned over to individual school site committees made up of teachers, administrators, and community representatives. The site committees were given authority over allocation of monies within the school, as well as matters related to school organization, discipline, curriculum content, academic standards, and staffing.

The impetus for the school-site management system was a belief that for individual schools to be effective, employees must be closely involved in the decisions that affect their work and in fact should feel "ownership" of those decisions.

Program Operations

The language outlining the authority transfer was negotiated and made part of the contract between the Board of School Trustees and the Hammond Teachers Federation. With the exception of legal and contract constraints, nothing is off limits to school site committees, as long as decisions made by one school do not have a negative impact on programs or teachers in other buildings.

SIP teams are trained in problem solving and consensus building techniques which are crucial to the process. The team develops a set of goals -- a "vision of excellence" for their school. Some of these changes which have been developed under the direction of site committees include:

- Rearranging the schedule of an elementary school to ensure a 90 minute block of time for reading;
- Development of a new attendance policy at one school which has prompted a look at district-wide policy;
- Development of a peer-evaluation program for teachers; and
- Redesigning a kindergarten program to better suit the education needs of disadvantaged students.

Source: This material was adapted from:

"Shared Decision Making at the School Site: Moving Toward a Professional Model," American Educator, Spring 1987.

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Target Population: 420 5th - 8th grade students in a Detroit middle school

Program Overview: Region 7 Middle School is an integrated magnet school which has established its goals, organizational structure and curriculum with the particular needs of adolescents in mind.

General Approach

Region 7 Middle School, under the direction of Principal Thomas Washington, has worked within the confines of limited space, administrative resistance, and budget cuts to design an academic program which affords adolescents a great amount of choice and requires an equal amount of self-direction and responsibility. The underlying assumption at Region 7 Middle School is that middle school students will learn more if they can express their interests by making responsible choices. Basic skills are taught, without much embellishment but with the understanding that all teachers are responsible for developing all skills, especially language skills. It is in the Independent Study Time (IST) each day, the Friday School-Wide Independent Study Time (SWIST), and the month long independent study time (fifth session) at the end of the school year that students are able to delve into topics that especially interest them.

Program Operations

Teachers are divided into "sets" of three to four teachers. Students are assigned to a different "set" of teachers every nine weeks. Students attend four classes in their sets each day, Monday through Thursday, and choose one independent study class (IST) offered by a set teacher during the fifth period. On Fridays, there is school-wide independent study (SWIST) which consists of mini-courses developed based on teacher and student interest. During the last month of the school year, there is a SWIST every day with courses that last for the entire month. Students select from over 100 courses and must include one math, one language arts and either a science or a social studies class.

Friday electives include: scrabble, Equations (a math team), chess club, literature club, swimming, art union, school newspaper, junior weight watchers, reading vacation maps, glee club, African folk tales, and many others. Fifth Session classes reflect the same diversity, but are more involved because they last for four weeks. These classes are not graded; this allows teachers to offer courses in areas in which they are not credentialed. It also offers students the opportunity to develop talents, achieve success, and choose to learn.

Region 7 Middle School does not use grades. Students are evaluated based on their strengths and weaknesses in skill areas and in work habits. This allows for success opportunities for all students and it leaves room for increased flexibility in teaching students who learn at different paces and who have different talents. Parental involvement is strong which is, in part, a result of the fact that they have chosen this school for their children. Parents are called frequently by teachers, the guidance counselor, and an outreach worker.

Behavior requirements are clear and strict. Students are involved in school policy decisions and are reminded frequently that they are responsible for making the school a safe and enjoyable place. There are few incidents of vandalism, theft, or fighting and those which arise are handled by other students and staff alike. The principal is available to help settle disputes and he actively encourages students to express their opinions and grievances. In an environment where a sense of trust has been established, adolescent dissent can be a vehicle for learning and maturing.

Evaluation

Average daily attendance is 98 percent, much higher than the region's middle school average of 87.2 percent. Students were third in the region on the CAT reading test in fifth grade; after fifth grade, they scored first. However, math achievement on the Michigan Educational Assessment Program has been below the state average.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Joan Lipsitz, Successful Schools for Young Adolescents, pp 59-91, c. 1984 Transaction, Inc.

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Target Population: Teachers in the Rochester School District

Program Overview: A career-ladder plan for teachers that encourages the best and most experienced teachers to work in the most challenging classrooms.

General Approach:

Rochester's local teacher union has developed a career-ladder plan that gives the best and most experienced teachers an incentive to work in the classroom with the most disadvantaged and low-achieving students. Senior teachers who meet certain qualifications are given release time for such leadership roles as helping develop curriculum as well as staff development, and they are given a 15-20 percent pay increase. In return, they agree to work one extra month per year or 10 percent extra time during the school year, and they agree to waive their seniority rights for a period of time for purposes of assignment.

The theory behind the plan, which is slated to take effect July 1, 1988, is that the most experienced teachers should be the ones to teach in the most challenging circumstances. As in most school districts, the most challenging classes usually fall to the least experienced, most vulnerable teachers -- those who are just entering the profession and who do not have enough seniority to be assigned to the easier classrooms. The plan has received enormous support from teachers, the union, and the school district. It has been "sold" on the grounds of equity: equity for students in that those who need the help the most will now get the best and brightest teachers, and equity for teachers in that the youngest teachers will not have to face the toughest classes when they are least prepared to deal with them.

Program Operations

Four levels of teachers will be established when the Rochester plan takes effect in July 1988:

1) Intern Teachers: entry-level teachers with no experience;

2) Resident Teachers: teachers with some experience but without certification or tenure;

3) Professional Teachers: certified, tenured teachers with experience;

4) Senior Teachers: teachers who are voluntarily promoted from the Professional Travel level. Applicants must have at least ten years of teaching experience, five of which are in Rochester city schools and be designed as outstanding teachers by their peers.

Senior teachers will be expected to teach 50 percent of their time and spend the other 50 percent in leadership roles doing such things as helping develop curriculum and designing staff training programs. They also will be available to work in the most challenging classrooms; e.g., those with high proportions of disadvantaged students, or split classes such as one with both fourth and fifth graders in it. The president of the local teachers union has received widespread support for his notion that the traditional seniority system may be objective, but it is far from fair. He has helped foster what he calls a "Clint Eastwood" attitude among the best teachers in the district who now believe that if they cannot teach the most difficult students, no one can.

The plan will be governed by a joint panel comprised of teachers and administrators which will determine the qualifications required for Senior Teachers. A peer review process is already in place in Rochester and this will be used for selection of the Senior Teachers.

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Target Population: Jefferson County public school teachers

Program Overview: Jefferson County is developing a teacher incentive plan based on the frequent flyer program of the airline industry.

General Approach

This teacher incentive system is based on four critical assumptions:

1. that positive rewards are more powerful than negative sanctions;
2. that an incentive plan should reward those who do what is expected of them as well as those who exceed expectations -- those who exceed expectations should, however, receive greater rewards;
3. that sustained high performance should be rewarded to a greater degree than short-term or sporadic high quality performance; and
4. that cooperative action should be rewarded as well as individual initiative.

Unlike merit pay systems, Jefferson County's plan is designed to recognize a wide range of specific contributions, group contributions and the fulfillment of standard expectations. Many of the activities which are likely to earn bonus points will involve cooperation.

Program Operations

This plan is still in its initial planning phase and has not yet been adopted, although some version of it is expected to be adopted within the next year. Under the plan, teachers receive bonus points for exceptional service which, like mileage awards in the airlines' frequent flyer programs, can be redeemed at various levels, in this case four:

Level I (1,000 points): Teachers receive a sum of money that can be used for instructional materials;

Level II (3,000 points): Teachers receive money that can be used to cover travel and release-time for conferences;

Level III (7,000 points): Teachers receive money that can be used to pay tuition or other expenses in graduate courses;

Level IV (8,000 points): Teachers receive money that can be taken as a cash award.

Bonus points will be distributed in ways to allow most teachers to earn from one to two award units (1,000 points each) per year simply by meeting standard expectations. There will be three categories of bonus points for: 1) standard service; 2) exceptional service; and 3) distinguished service. The first two categories are focused on rewarding effort, the third on results.

Adherence to District policies regarding sick leave and personal leave would be rewarded with bonus points for standard service. Normally, the only reward for employees who don't abuse these policies is self-satisfaction. Minimum performance is not rewarded; satisfactory performance is.

Activities for which teachers may receive exceptional service bonus points include: participation in pilot programs, conducting in-service training for peers, applying for grants which will benefit others in the school system, and attending professional conferences. Teachers may pool award units to help the school and may receive more bonus points for doing so -- increasing the focus on collective action.

Distinguished service bonus points are intended to reward results. Teachers can submit action plans, a panel will review the plan and assign a number of possible bonus points which could be earned. When the project is evaluated, the teacher(s) involved receive a percentage of the total possible bonus points based on the extent to which the intended results were realized.

Source: This material was adapted from:

"A Proposed Incentive System for Jefferson County Teachers" by Phillip Schlechty and Donald Ingwerson, Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 68, No. 8, April 1987.

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Target Population: High school teachers in Pittsburgh

Program Overview: A teacher training center that has provided 16 8-week cycles for high school teachers in Pittsburgh.

General Approach

The Schenley Teacher Center was established in 1983 to improve student achievement through enhanced teacher performance. It was recognized that high school teachers typically have little exposure to innovative instructional techniques and few opportunities to gain new knowledge in their content fields. The Teacher Center was designed to provide an intensive renewal opportunity to all high school teachers and it was hoped that the results would help counter Pittsburgh's high dropout rates. (NOTE: subsequent to the development of the high school Teacher Center, Pittsburgh established the Brookline Teacher Center for elementary teachers which follows the same model.)

The central goals of the program are to: 1) refine instructional skills; 2) increase sensitivity to the needs of adolescents; 3) update knowledge in content areas; 4) provide information on district-wide improvement initiatives; 5) provide opportunities for personal and professional development; and 6) encourage the development of personal action plans for increased professional growth.

Program Operations

Between 1983 and 1987, 930 of Pittsburgh's 970 high school teachers participated in an 8-week training course. Sixteen cycles have been completed with approximately 50 teachers enrolled in each 8-week cycle. New teachers to the district will participate in the program during the 1987-88 school year.

The Center is part of an operating comprehensive high school which was restructured with the teacher training needs in mind. The school's residential teaching staff teaches a reduced class load and works with the visiting teachers who come from high schools all over the district.

The residential teaching staff (called Clinical Resident Teachers) plan programs, teach seminars, run clinics on effective teaching, observe visiting teachers in the classroom and are themselves observed. For the visiting teachers, the program is a "mini-sabbatical" at Schenley. They participate in a program that focuses on instructional skills, content area update, adolescent development, and their individual interests which range from developing an internship with a local business to learning about applications of computer technology. While at the center, their classes are taught by replacement teachers who have gone through the Schenley program and are tenured, full-time teachers in the Pittsburgh schools.

After spending eight weeks at the Center as learners and part of a collegial teaching environment, the visiting teachers return to their home schools. There they are expected to continue using the techniques they have learned. Their principals and department chairs have themselves been trained in clinical supervision and therefore share the same expectations as the teachers. Superintendent Richard Wallace hopes that as a result of Schenley, every high school will, in effect, become a teacher learning center.

Source: This material was adapted, in part, from the Ford Foundation Letter, October 1, 1985.

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Target Population: Students of Willard Junior High School

Program Overview: Establishing heterogeneity in English and history classes to ensure equal access to knowledge.

General Approach

In 1982, the Berkeley Public School System received a California state demonstration grant to eliminate tracking in one of its middle schools. Staff at the Willard Junior High School believed that creating heterogeneous classes would further the democratic ideal of equal access to knowledge. Grouping according to honors, middle, and remedial levels resulted in unequal course content, student achievement expectations, behavior expectations, and teacher performance.

Program Operations

In order to de-track its classes, Willard Junior High School made several changes in all history and English classes:

- classes were deliberately -- not randomly -- balanced so that academic, ethnic and gender distribution was equitable.
- The curriculum was revised to stress content rather than skills.
- Varying techniques of instruction were introduced (group projects, use of audio visual equipment, etc.); lecturing was no longer the predominant method used.
- Class activities and tests were designed to address the full range of Bloom's Taxonomy including an emphasis on activities to develop higher level thinking, and problem solving and discussion skills.

Generally, these changes reflected a respect for varying levels and types of student ability and eliminated strict classification of students.

To provide support and ensure success in the heterogeneous group, students reading two years or more behind grade level are placed in a reading class called "Reading Back-Up." This class parallels the heterogeneous English class. It provides a structured program of skills instruction based on the novels being read in the English class.

Evaluation Data

Initially, parents of students who had traditionally been high achievers worried that heterogeneous classes would result in lower standards for their children. Results of the de-tracking effort, however, point to positive results for all students. Standardized test scores rose for all students compared to the other junior high schools in town. Less tangible benefits were also noted including: a greater respect for individual and group differences, increased cooperation among students, and a decline in negative student behavior.

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NOE MIDDLE SCHOOL **LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY**

Target Population: 1000 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students

Program Overview: Noe Middle School has many of the features of an "effective" school, including individualized instruction.

General Approach

Noe Middle School is a large urban school in Louisville which has taken steps to restructure itself in order to operationalize its commitment to individual student progress. This commitment takes the form of multi-aged groupings, flexible scheduling, regular advisor-advisee meetings, creative teaching, and a general climate of understanding of the needs of adolescents.

Program Operations

One of the keys to Noe's success is decentralization. The school is, in essence, seven semi-autonomous schools each with 150 students and six to eight teachers. There is a strong sense of "family" centered around teams. The family is large enough to meet the needs, both social and academic, of a diverse group of adolescents, and it is small enough to be a safe, supportive, and trusting environment.

In addition to these interdisciplinary teams, there are teams of teachers in the Unified Arts Program who teach music, art, physical education, Spanish, media, band, orchestra, home economics, industrial arts, and independent study. Three teams are single grade teams, and four are multi-aged. These groupings allow students to progress at varying rates without homogeneous grouping. With sixth, seventh, and eighth graders in the same team, teachers are not limited to teaching "sixth grade material." Different abilities, interests, and styles are taken into consideration when planning activities which are appropriate and challenging to all students. The young high achiever is able to fit in as is the older student who has more difficulty. In addition, every student is in an advisor-advisee group which functions as a homeroom and as a deliberate counseling group.

Noe is a school without walls. Teaching teams are allowed much freedom to plan the curriculum for their group. Time is provided during the school day for individual and group planning sessions. While there is some whole-class instruction, many different instructional styles are used. Curriculum is designed and existing programs adapted to allow students to learn independently.

Evaluation

Noe distinguishes itself from other schools with its low rate of violence, vandalism, absenteeism, suspension, and racial tension. Its freedom and openness, as well as its location in a "tough" neighborhood have kept some students away, but at the same time have won over many others. Average daily attendance has risen from below 80 percent to 92-93 percent. There are fewer than five incidents of vandalism per year which is much lower than that of neighboring schools. Student achievement has risen. In 1974 scores fell in the first through third stanines on the California Test of Basic Skills; scores now average in the fifth stanine with less disparity in performance.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Joan Lipsitz, Successful Schools for Young Adolescents, Transaction, Inc., c. 1984, pp. 59-91.

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Target Population:	The 1981 sixth grade graduating class from P.S. 121 in East Harlem, New York
Program Overview:	In this incentives-based experiment, Eugene Lang, a New York businessman, contributed money to a scholarship fund each year to students who remained in school.

General Approach

The "I Have A Dream" program (IHAD) began in June 1981 when Eugene Lang, a New York businessman, was invited to address 61 students in the sixth grade graduating class of P.S. 121 in East Harlem, the school from which he had graduated. In that speech he promised to contribute money to a scholarship fund each year the students remained in school. The primary aim was to enable the students to attend college or to obtain fulfilling jobs after completing high school.

Program Operations

A Project Coordinator maintains contact with the students and organizes activities and assistance to provide students with tutoring and other support services as needed. A Community Youth Center provides space for student activities; the Community Center Director oversees the program, and furnishes guidance in planning, operations, and problem solving.

In 1986, nine new IHAD projects were started in New York City involving about 500 students. These are being sponsored in a similar fashion by prominent New York businessmen. Local organizations are being formed in 20 cities around the country to initiate similar projects.

Evaluation

Of the 61 students in the 1981 graduating sixth grade class, 20 are in college, 20 will graduate from high school in January 1988, 11 have left the country, 3 have dropped out, and the remaining are employed.

Source: This material was adapted, in part, from:

Dropout Prevention: A Book of Sources, by the National Committee for Citizens in Education and the National Center for Parents in Dropout Prevention, May 1987.

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KROGER COMPANY INCENTIVE PROGRAM — CINCINNATI, OHIO

Target Population: 600 disadvantaged elementary school students at Washington Park School

Program Overview: A direct incentive program which recognizes good attendance, positive attitudes and achievement in students grades 1-6. Food and monetary incentives are provided by the Kroger Company.

General Approach

This is a joint school/business program which offers tangible rewards for good attendance, a positive attitude and achievement in reading and math. Through the various departments of the Kroger Company and teacher coordinators at the Washington Park Elementary School, students receive food products as awards. Superstar students who are successful in all three categories are eligible for cash awards which are placed in a college fund.

Program Operations

Students receive food awards quarterly for:

- Attendance - perfect attendance or only one absence
- Attitude - a grade of A or B on social development and classroom behavior
- Achievement - grades of A or B in reading and math

By meeting the requirements in a given category for the quarter, a student receives an award. A student who meets the requirements in all three categories is a superstar and receives a larger prize (t-shirts, tote bags, etc.)

Students who are superstars become eligible for monetary incentives which are placed in an account managed by the Greater Cincinnati Foundation for use toward college tuition. Students who are superstars for two quarters receive $300; for three quarters, $600; and for four quarters $1,000.

Evaluation Data

While evaluation data are not formal, the program is becoming well-known and the number of students earning awards has increased. During the first year, 90 students achieved perfect attendance; this year, 200 students had perfect attendance. Seventeen students were four-quarter superstars in 1986-87, the first year that scholarship money was offered, compared with seven students the year before.

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Target Population: Students in L.A. Unified School District

Program Overview: Los Angeles has instituted several programs aimed at improving student attendance based on incentives and family involvement.

General Approach

These programs are based on several assumptions about how to motivate students to attend school: (1) that students can benefit from monitoring their own progress; (2) that achievement generates more achievement; (3) that positive incentives are effective; and (4) that family and friends can be trained to reinforce good attendance.

Program Operations

I. Use of Mediation for Students with Poor Attendance

School counselors identified students who only attended school 30-50 percent of the time and used teachers, parents, and friends, to provide reinforcers and/or privileges for improved attendance. There are three steps in the process:

- The counselor contacts a pupil's relative or friend (called a mediator), who agrees to provide rewards to that pupil for improving his or her school attendance. A mediator may be the counselor himself or herself.
- The counselor and mediator determine appropriate rewards for the pupil and procedures for making them available. Rewards may be access to a pool hall, money, privileges on weekends, time with peers, access to the family car, movies, etc.
- The counselor periodically contacts each mediator in person, by telephone, or by messenger to maintain the reward contract.

An example of an agreement between a mediator and a pupils might be that the pupil agrees to attend school 100 percent of the time in return for being taken off restriction on Friday night and Saturday. Or the student may receive ten cents for each class attended, with the money saved for school activities and field trips.

Evaluation

When rewards and privileges were provided, attendance increased to about 80 percent for one group and 90 percent for a second group of pupils. Both sets of students improved more than a group whose members were counseled about the importance of school and helped to work out personal problems thought to be causing poor attendance but received no tangible reward.

II. Grade Points for Beating One's Record

This program allows pupils to monitor their own progress and compete against themselves to earn points to enhance their grades. The key to this program's success is immediate and visible feedback.

- Pupils are informed that promptness is one of many job skills, and that this will be an opportunity to develop this skill.
- A large attendance and homework/daily assignment chart is maintained in the classroom. A pupil earns points for each day that he or she comes to class on time. Points are also earned for completing assignments.
- Points are then applied to the pupil's grade in class.
- The number of overall points needed to earn each grade is posted on the board and clearly explained.

A large cardboard thermometer or a large racetrack can be used with younger children as a motivational technique. Each pupil then can mark his or her own progress.

Noted that achievement created more achievement and as the pupils watched their own progress, they were encouraged to work harder. Also, pupils visually saw what was expected of them and were immediately reinforced.

In addition, centrally located bulletin boards emphasized perfect attendance within the school. Or the best attendance record within each grade level can be highlighted. The homeroom with the best attendance record might receive an award.)

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Target Population: Parents of elementary children in one school

Program Overview: A parent involvement program which holds monthly meetings to promote a better understanding of how parents can help children learn, involves parents as classroom and non-classroom volunteers, and organizes support groups.

General Approach

"Parents as Partners" was started in 1983 by staff and parents of the Mary McLeod Bethune School in response to the emphasis on parent involvement in student learning in the Minneapolis Public Schools' Five Year Plan. In this program, parents and teachers work as partners to help further children's learning. Community agencies share information on community services and provide in-kind support and speakers for monthly meetings.

Program Operations

Monthly "Parents as Partners" meetings are held on school days from 9:30 a.m. to 12:00 p.m. Babysitting and transportation as well, are provided. During these meetings:

- speakers provide information on topics chosen based on parent interest. Representatives from community agencies discuss programs of interest to parents (such as summer opportunities, fuel assistance, etc.);
- parents meet in discussion groups;
- make-and-take sessions provide free materials and ideas to reinforce math and reading skills at home; and
- a teacher-of-the-month is introduced.

Weekly parent support groups and additional special focus programs have been developed in response to parent interest.

The "Friday Volunteers" meet weekly at the Bethune School to work with small groups of students, assemble classroom materials and help grade papers.

Evaluation Data

Parents as Partners has grown since its inception in Janaury 1983 from 3 to 150 members. Program administrators attribute its success to administrative support, the personal contact of some parents, provision of babysitting and transportation, the incorporation of school and community resources, assessment of parent needs, and an evaluation process.

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Target Population: 12 high- and low-risk ninth graders in each of Detroit's 20 high schools

Program Overview: A community-based peer counseling program for ninth graders including weekly counseling sessions, a weekend retreat, and a commitment to study.

General Approach

In 1982, the Metropolitan Detroit Youth Foundation (MDYF) started Twelve Together as a community-based dropout prevention initiative. Since 1982, peer counseling groups consisting of approximately 12 ninth graders have been formed each year from each of Detroit's 20 high schools. There is one group in each of the 20 Detroit Public High Schools. To date over 900 students have participated. Parents and community volunteers are involved in Twelve Together in its efforts to give students, through peer counseling, the type of start, motivation, and support they need to continue in school and graduate.

Program Operations

The MDYF staff meets with all ninth grade students to describe the program and its requirements. Initially 100-150 students apply, and from this group, the staff selects 18-20 students, 12 of whom will eventually join the program. The group is equally divided between students identified as being at-risk of dropping out and students who are not at-risk. Students are considered at-risk if they meet any two of these characteristics: 1) are age 16 or over in ninth grade; 2) have D's or F's in two or more classes; 3) were absent more than 20 days in the prior semester; and 4) are living with only one parent. The rationale behind selecting students from both the at-risk and not at-risk groups is to achieve balance. The students who are "not at-risk' benefit from the peer counseling aspect of the program but can also set a positive example for others in the group with regard to school performance.

The program of Twelve Together consists of a weekend orientation retreat, a parent reception, 20-30 weekly two-hour peer counseling sessions, monthly academic forums and graduation. Businesses have adopted Twelve Together groups and provided meeting space, rewards for achievement, and other kinds of support.

Evaluation Data

Twelve Together has been increasingly successful during its first three years of operation. In 1984-5, 67 percent of the students participating attended 30 meetings and met the 1 1/2 hour/day studying requirement. This was just below MDYF's goal of 75 percent. Students who enrolled in the second and third years of the program's operation showed greater credit accumulation than their peers. Ninth grade students just completing the program (1984-5) were 55 percent more likely to have enough credits to be promoted to tenth grade than students not involved in the program. Students who completed the program in 1983-4 and who were currently in tenth grade were 28 percent more likely to have enough credits to be promoted to 11th grade. Students attendance and academic performance also improved.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Keeping Students in School, by Margaret Terry Orr, Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, San Francisco, California, scheduled for publication in November 1987.

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Target Population: Boston public high school students

Program Overview: The Boston Compact is a series of agreements between Boston's business, university and labor communities and the Boston Public Schools to improve access to jobs and higher education for Boston students who improve their performance in schools.

General Approach

The Boston Compact was signed in 1982 to initiate a comprehensive and systematic school, business and community response to the problems of youth unemployment, illiteracy, and high dropout rates. The Compact agreements stipulate the contributions each entity will make to improve school attendance, academic achievement, and post-high school opportunities.

The goals of the Boston Compact are: to improve the education, work preparation, employment opportunities, and college prospects of students in Boston's public high schools; and to build a broad base of support of schools, businesses, educational institutions and trade unions toward this effort. Specifically, the Boston Compact seeks to:

1) Reduce the number of high school dropouts;
2) Improve average daily attendance in high school;
3) Increase achievement in reading and math; and
4) Increase the number of graduates who attend college or enter full-time employment.

The Compact involves the Boston Private Industry Council, the Boston Public School System, 336 local businesses, the Greater Boston Chamber of Commerce, 25 area colleges and post-secondary schools, and 27 unions through the Boston Area Trade Union Council.

The Boston Compact is not a single program entity, but is enacted through several programs, each of which is separately funded. While estimated to spend about $600,000 per year, much of the Compact work has been funded through in-kind contributions and pro bono efforts of Boston businesses, universities, and labor unions.

Program Operations

The Compact takes the form of a series of agreements among key institutions in the city: the public schools, employers, city government, colleges, trade unions, and community agencies. Each party to the agreement has specific tasks aimed at improving the quality of the schools. Compact activities include school-based planning, pre-apprenticeship training, a sequence of career development, scholarships, teacher training, post-graduate follow-up, and programs to prevent dropouts. The Compact includes recruiting employers to pledge to give priority in hiring to the graduates of local public schools.

Although the Boston Compact involves different parts of the community, it is primarily monitored by the Boston PIC and the Boston Public Schools. The PIC coordinates the jobs component and currently has 30 career specialists working in 14 of Boston's 17 public high schools. The school system is responsible for the school improvement activities.

The Compact is being emulated currently in a number of cities, through a national replication project being managed by Barbara Morrill, National Alliance of Business, (617) 235-1332.

Evaluation Data

Of its four primary goals, the Boston Compact has been most successful in improving the employment of its public high school graduates. Some improvement has been made on improving school attendance (with a ten percent increase from 1982 to 1985) and academic achievement (with composite reading and math scores reaching the 50th percentile). High school dropout rates, however, remain unchanged.

Source: This material was adapted, in part, from:

Keeping Students in School, by Margaret Terry Orr, Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, San Francisco, California, scheduled for publication in November 1987.

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Target Population: Youth at-risk of dropping out of school

Program Overview: A multi-site program that establishes a coordinated and comprehensive delivery system of city and community resources in school to serve potential dropouts and their families.

General Approach

Cities-in-Schools, a national non-profit corporation, seeks to permanently increase school attendance among youth who are at-risk of dropping out, thus enabling them to achieve academically and ultimately to become more productive citizens. Its approach is to integrate community and school resources by coordinating public and private support services right in the schools to be delivered to at-risk youths.

Students are referred to the Cities-in-Schools (CIS) program by principals, counselors, teachers, and parents. Referral may be the result of poor attendance, low academic achievement, disruptive behavior, or family problems. While participating students attend regular classes with other students, they report to a team of skilled, professional counselors outside of class who monitor their schoolwork. The professionals see students before, during, and after school, providing remedial education, guidance and encouragement.

The staff also work with the youth planning sports activities and field trips, putting them in touch with job opportunities, financial and legal aid, health care and housing, and, if necessary, drug rehabilitation.

Program Operations

Cities-in-Schools operates in 23 cities throughout the country. One of the more recently developed programs -- that in Bridgeport, Connecticut -- is described here as one example of a CIS program. Bridgeport's program builds upon a demonstration project at Bassick High School that began during the spring semester of 1986, and aims to expand to all of Bridgeport's three high schools within the next few years.

Human service providers from 15 Bridgeport agencies and organizations including social workers, counselors, recreational specialists health professionals and others, have begun to enter into agreements with the Bridgeport CIS Program to provide services to youth and their families. Successful experiences will lead to the institutionalization of the relocation of agency staff to school sites. The implementation model for the program has the following features:

1. CIS staff and staff repositioned from youth-serving agencies are organized into teams, consisting of three staff members with caseloads of not more than 15 students each. Each staff member is responsible for monitoring the attendance and progress of assigned students. Each staff member would also have a specialist role: youth counselor, social service specialist, or programmatic specialist. Sixty students can receive intensive, daily services.

2. Services at a "Drop-In Center" are available as needed to all students in the school but with scheduled counseling sessions and other services provided by CIS and repositioned staff to students enrolled in the CIS Program. Group programs are scheduled in the Center and/or in available classrooms during the sixth and seventh periods of the school day and after school. These include substance abuse, job readiness, adolescent pregnancy and motivational programs.

3. Enrichment activities away from the school site are planned, usually between 1:00 p.m. and 5:00 p.m. These might include career exploration and job training programs, academic, cultural and recreational programs.

Because Bridgeport's program is so new, no evaluation data are yet available.

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DETROIT'S CLASSROOM PARTNERS — DETROIT, MI

Target Population: Community at-large

Program Overview: To address the high rate of high school dropouts in the public schools through community outreach and a series of public television programs.

General Approach

Detroit's public television station, WTVS-Channel 56, produced and televised a documentary in March of 1986 to showcase the alarming rate at which young people are dropping out of school. As part of the station's Youth Initiative, a collective effort to address the problems facing young people in Detroit, the Classroom Partners program was conceived. It responded to public reports that fewer than one-half of Detroit's students were graduating from school, and brought together the idea of producing a documentary in conjunction with a televised town meeting. Station managers feel that television helps reinforce a more positive attitude about the schools with the biggest dropout problems, and that television can alert parents and community leaders to the problem as well as the solutions schools are trying.

Program Operations

Through the Classroom Partners project, WTVS-Channel 56 set up a live community meeting directly involving 1,500 residents either at the studio or in various high schools. Participants were shown a one-hour documentary on Detroit's dropout problem which put names, faces, and real-life stories on the already publicized statistics. Task forces from each of the Detroit's 22 high schools were connected to the central meeting either by video hookup (in four locations) or by telephone. The event was an "electronic town meeting."

After showing the documentary, teachers, parents, administrators, students and community leaders engaged in a 90-minute discussion addressing potential solutions to the problem. The ideas most frequently voiced were listed on a board and monitored by camera. By the end of the evening, a list of ten recommendations had been developed, and Superintendent Arthur Jefferson ended the meeting by commenting on their feasibility, effectiveness, and cost. Student incentives, such as internships, job interviews upon graduation, and other encouragements, were a central theme to the recommendations. The proceedings were guided by experienced television interviewers from both the public television stations and cooperating commercial stations.

The March 1986 "town meeting" was described by participants as helpful in facilitating the understanding of a complicated but seriously urgent issue as well as generating a greater sense of the teamwork necessary to deal with it. A follow-up town meeting, similar to the first, was televised in March of 1987, when Superintendent Arthur Jefferson reviewed progress made over the year on the ten community recommendations.

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SCHOOL-WITHIN-A-SCHOOL
PARKER HIGH SCHOOL JANESVILLE, WI

Target Population: Students in Parker High School with serious academic difficulties

Program Overview: A school-within-a-school to assist low-achieving students to improve their academic and social development.

General Approach

The School-Within-A-School (SWS) approach, demonstrated at Parker High School since 1979, pulls academically deficient students out of the mainstream flow of classes and provides individualized instruction on-site with a focus on remediation and personal and career development. The overriding feature of a School-Within-A-School is that students remain on their regular high school campuses rather than being removed and displaced to a "separate" setting. With an emphasis on small classes (8-18 students), individualized instruction and group projects, Parker's School-Within-A-School aims to meet the needs of students who might otherwise feel they don't belong in school.

Employment is an important dimension of SWS. While some students choose not to work, most have part-time jobs. Participants can obtain jobs through the SWS program, but must show progress in both their academics and their personal and social responsibilities in order to keep the jobs.

Program Operations

Parker High School, with about 1,500 students, is one of two comprehensive high schools in Janesville, Wisconsin. Sixty students, mostly 11th graders, are chosen to participate in the SWS program each year. Beginning in the fall of 1987, grades 9-12 will be admitted. There are two full-time teachers, several part-time staff and a secretary. Three classrooms in the school building are used exclusively for SWS courses. They offer a one-year, self-contained curriculum that includes math, reading, English, group guidance, science and social studies. The group guidance course, called "personal development/careers," is offered as the first-hour class.

A meeting is held with the student, the student's parents, and the program director to discuss the standards and requirements. Each party involved then signs a contract of understanding that the following standards will be upheld:

- Regular and punctual attendance.
- Participation in class.
- Accepting responsibility for one's own actions.
- Being courteous and respectful to students and staff.
- Responsible use of chemicals.

If the contract is broken, the student can be expelled from the program.

Evaluation Data

A 1983 evaluation of the SWS program showed that approximately two-thirds of all at-risk students who went into the SWS program successfully completed their high school graduation requirements.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Gary Wehlage, Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student, Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, Bloomington, Indiana, 1983.

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Target Population:	Individuals with limited employment and education, who need remedial instruction in basic skills
Program Overview:	CCP is a nationally distributed competency-based computer-assisted instructional program.

General Approach

CCP is a self-paced basic skills instruction system based on sequenced workbooks and computer software developed by the Remediation and Training Institute with Ford Foundation support in 1983. Instruction is hierarchically organized around specific learning objectives and corresponding tests diagnose student needs and assess student mastery of each objective. Student progress is tracked through an automated management system. Nearly 220 sites nationwide, including CBOs, schools, corrections facilities and job training programs, are now using CCP. Through CCP, students can prepare for the GED, improve basic skills, and achieve competency levels in various job readiness and occupational interest areas.

Program Operations

The CCP learning system covers academic competencies--ranging from elementary reading and arithmetic, through high school and introductory college-level science, mathematics, humanities, social studies and writing, as well as functional competencies determined necessary for success in the family, society and economy--including job getting and holding, consumer skills, citizenship, health and community participation.

CCP Learning Centers feature individualized instruction, competency-based education, instructional options, self-directed learning, positive reimbursement, accountability, a supportive environment, and work and training linkages.

CCP Learning Centers vary in size, inventory, and institutional setting. They utilize print and audio-visual materials on a variety of subjects and ability levels in addition to computer-assisted instructional coursework. Technical assistance is provided to users by the Remedial and Training Institute; the annual user fee for the system is $1,000.

The average CCP Learning Center staff consists of 3.2 full-time equivalent staff, including 1-2 instructors and one aide or assistant. A third of the centers operated with two or fewer full-time equivalent staff.

Students using CCP must demonstrate 80 percent mastery on assigned topics before moving to the next unit and their progress is reassesed every 100 hours of instruction and upon completion of each course.

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SECONDARY CREDIT EXCHANGE PROGRAM WASHINGTON STATE

Target Population: Secondary school migrant youth

Program Overview: This program offers working migrant youth evening and summer school classes and transfers the credits they earn back to their home schools in California, Texas, and elsewhere in Washington.

General Approach

Through a cooperative relationship between migrant student's home-base school districts and selected Washington state districts, students are able to do the coursework necessary to complete a school year. Through this program, which began in 1970, interstate cooperation, flexible scheduling, and the use of revised curriculum make it possible for adolescents whose transient lifestyle and family financial demands make the completion of school very difficult.

Program Operations

In 1986, approximately 700 students were served in nine Washington school districts. Programs ranged in size from seven to 254 students. In the 6-10 week Spring evening program students rotate through four or five classes. Teachers design the classes to stress basic skill development. Through much individual work, students are able to complete the specific coursework outlined by their sending school districts. Transportation is provided and a state person keeps in close contact with families and the field supervisor to ensure good attendance. These programs also continue in the summer.

Frequent meetings between Texas and Washington state school officials and the use of the Migrant Student Record Transfer System facilitate coordination of information. Sending schools recruit students before they move north and may even forward textbooks and materials to increase continuity.

Most of the students are Mexican American and for many, English is a second language. An effort is made to hire bilingual teachers and assistants. Students may also sign up for self-paced instructional courses making use of the Washington State Portable Assisted Study Sequence (PASS) Program which is well suited to students with limited proficiency in English. A PASS unit covers 18 hours of work per subject and allows students the opportunity to work independently to make up for course deficiencies.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Keeping Students in School, by Margaret Terry Orr, Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, San Francisco, California, scheduled for publication in November 1987.

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SUMMER TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM (STEP) MULTI-SITE

Target Population: Youth ages 14 to 16 from disadvantaged backgrounds who test below grade level in reading or math

Program Overview: STEP combines intensive remedial instruction, work experience and life skills for dropout prone youth to increase basic skills and lower dropout and teen pregnancy rates.

General Approach

The Summer Training and Employment Program (STEP) is a demonstration project designed especially for youths under the Federal Job Training Parternship Act. The STEP model aims to increase basic skills and lower dropout and teen pregnancy rates by providing poor and under-performing youth ages 14 to 16 with remediation, life skills and work experience during two consecutive and intensive summer programs, with on-going adult support and personal contact during the intervening school year. The work experience component utilizes the federal Summer Youth Employment and Training Program (SYETP) and the education component is provided with public school resources.

STEP was designed and initiated by Public/Private Ventures, a non-profit Philadelphia corporation, in 1984. Four-year national demonstrations began in the summer of 1985 in five cities: Boston; Fresno; San Diego; Seattle; and Portland, Oregon.

Program Operations

Enrolled youth participate in this two-summer program -- the second summer's participation is guaranteed for students who finish the first summer and stay in school. Each summer, 750 students work for the minimum wage at part-time jobs, learn reading and math skills, and receive training in responsible social and sexual behavior. The average cost per student is $1,600 in addition to existing program resources from schools and SYETP.

The remedial instruction component consists of 90 hours of group and individually paced instruction per student in basic reading and math skills. "Life skills and opportunities" classes involve 18 hours of instruction on responsible social and sexual attitudes and behavior. A minimum of 80 hours of part-time work over each summer provides STEP participants with work experience and an income.

Evaluation Data

The demonstration includes a research component that involves random assignment of youth to treatment and control groups. Control group youth work full-time on SYETP jobs. Both groups are tested at the beginning and end of the summer using the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT). Other data on attendance and academic status are collected and pre- and post-program questionnaires measuring attitudes, knowledge, and behavior are used. Students in the STEP program scored higher in math and reading at the end of the summer than others, although all students continued to lose ground in reading, with the STEP youths losing at a slower rate than the non-STEP control group. STEP students made gains in math in 1986 while non-STEP youth lost some ground.

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MURRAY-WRIGHT HIGH SCHOOL DAY CARE CENTER DETROIT, MI

Target Population:	Low-achieving AFDC-eligible teenage mothers in the Detroit Public School System
Program Overview:	Murray-Wright High School provides school-based infant and toddler day care and a year-long parenting education program for parenting girls who wish to complete high school.

General Approach

Because the Murray-Wright High School offers school-based infant-toddler care, 20 teenage mothers have been able to continue in their regular high school program each year since 1974. In addition to day care, new mothers take a year long parenting class (which is open to other interested students) and are supported informally by a teacher-coordinator and the center staff. Mothers are encouraged to stay in school, avoid repeated pregnancies, follow proper child care practices, and plan for their futures. This design reflects the philosophy that teenage mothers should be integrated fully in the regular high school program.

Program Operations

The infant-toddler day care center and the adjacent parenting education classroom are housed in the Murray-Wright High School. Teen mothers drop their children off in the morning and continue with their regular high school classes. The children are on an activity schedule similar to class periods in the parent school.

The day care center is part of the Home Economics/Vocational Education Division of the high school. It is staffed by a teacher-coordinator, a full-time nurse, two paraprofessionals, and student volunteers. The teacher-coordinator provides an array services to the teen mothers -- from informal counseling and rides to school, to information and referral to other social service agencies.

Because of limited space, the coordinator selects girls who are committed to completing school. Mothers with more than one child and mothers whose children have serious health problems are not accepted. For the purposes of obtaining State Department of Social Services funding, mothers must be AFDC-eligible. Funding also comes from local school district funds and Chapter I monies. DSS reimburses $11.04 per child to the day care center each day.

Evaluation

Many of the mothers involved in the program have graduated from high school. Nevertheless, between 25 and 50 percent of the mothers drop out of the program and, subsequently, out of school. Repeat pregnancies are rare among the girls who stay in the program; in the last five years, by the staff's estimation, only two girls have had a second child.

There is a waiting list for this school-based day care center and staff estimate that at least 45 girls in the Murray-Wright High School alone would qualify for the program.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Keeping Students in School, by Margaret Terry Orr, Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, San Francisco, California, scheduled for publication in November 1987.

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Target Population:	Alexandria Public School System
Program Overview:	A school improvement program to reduce the 40 percentile point achievement gap in SRA test scores between Alexandria's black and white students.

General Approach

The Superintendent in Alexandria launched a multi-faceted community-wide campaign to close the gap in achievement test scores between blacks and whites. School district enrollment in Alexandria is approximately 46 percent black, 36 percent white, 10 percent Hispanic, and 7 percent Asian, and most minority students come from low-income families. When the achievement gap became known in 1984, the Superintendent initiated a system-wide school effectiveness program and the disparity has been reduced as black students are now making larger gains than whites on the tests.

Program Operation

The basic strategy Alexandria used to initiate the school effectiveness reform was to: 1) define, quantify, and publicize the problem; 2) decide on a general strategy using available school effectiveness literature; and 3) develop some way of measuring progress, i.e. benchmarks such as achievement test scores and grades in secondary school courses.

In 1983-84, Alexandria Public Schools began separating Science Research Associates (SRA) test scores by racial group to document the disparity gap in achievement. In June of 1985, Superintendent Robert Peebles publically announced the existence of a 40-point achievement gap on SRA scores between black and white students, and recommended, three months later, at a joint meeting of the City Council and School Board, a proposal to begin a comprehensive school effectiveness program to reduce this alarming gap.

Newspapers, television and radio reporters had been invited to a press conference in June 1985, and the media prominantly displayed the data in local newspapers and on radio and television broadcasts. The Alexandria media campaign brought to the surface not only an emergent sense of community awareness and concern for the student achievement gap, but a resurfacing of many controversial issues, including integration, the equality of classroom teaching practices, and the use of achievement test scores to measure minority student knowledge and ability.

In 1985, the Alexandria School Board made minority student achievement its number one priority, focusing on teacher, principal, and curriculum effectiveness. Twenty-one strategies were developed to focus on higher teacher expectations of students, training students on how to take tests, weekly monitoring of individual student progress, individualized learning strategies, and enhancing the use of available computer learning packages. Involving students in the classroom, publically recognizing academic and behavioral achievement, and showing students that skills enhancement will make a positive difference in their lives were cited as the most important components of the program.

Progress is constantly monitored for the students as well as the whole school system. School newspapers regularly publicize the names of students who demonstrate academic and social skills achievement. Community newspapers also publish the test scores by race for the district as a whole every year.

This is the third year in a row that minority achievement has been the number one priority of the Alexandria School Board. The Board decided in its July 1987 annual goal-setting meeting that new factors, in addition to standardized test scores, will be used for measuring minority student's progress. This is in response to concerns that testing alone was not a sufficient measure of achievement. Examples of these factors include tracking student dropout rates, involvement in extracurricular activities, grades in honors courses and college enrollment figures.

Evaluation

Black students this year scored an average of 33 percentile points lower than their white classmates on the SRA achievement tests, marking a seven point improvement since 1985.

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ADDITIONAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON EDUCATION REFORM AND DROPOUT PREVENTION

The following sources of information may be useful to candidate communities as they develop their plans for education reform and dropout prevention strategies:

Teachers College. School Dropouts, Patterns and Policies. Natriello, G., Editor, Columbia University Press, New York, c. 1987.

> This is a collection of leading articles written about the policies and patterns of school dropouts, the measurement thereof, and considerations in the development of school reform.

Hahn, Andrew, and Jacqueline Danzberger. Dropouts in America: Enough is Known for Action. The Institute for Educational Leadership, Washington, DC, c. March 1987.

> The findings and recommendations in this report reflect a review of research and existing programs as well as consideration of current policy trends in public education. It discusses the nature and scope of the dropout problem and analyzes the wide array of responses that have either been recommended or already put to use.

Schools That Work: Educating Disadvantaged Children. U.S. Department of Education, c. 1987.

> This book provides useful, practical information on effective methods for improving education for disadvantaged children. It explains how schools can be strengthened, and it profiles schools that have exemplary education programs. To obtain a free copy of this book, write: Schools That Work, Pueblo, Colorado, 81009.

Lipsitz, Joan. Successful Schools for Young Adolescents. Transaction Books, New Brunswick (USA), c. 1984.

> This presentation of case studies of four schools offers solutions and concrete models of diverse ways in which excellence can be attained in middle schools.

Orr, Margaret Terry. Keeping Students in School. Jossey-Bass Inc., 433 California Street, San Francisco, CA, 94104. Scheduled for publication in November 1987.

> This study provides coverage of programs, issues, and conclusions in education reform and dropout prevention. A pre-publication summary, called "What to Do About Youth Dropouts? A Summary of Solutions," is available through SEEDCO, 130 West 42 Street, Suite 801, New York, NY, 10036, (212/302-0540).

The Way Out, Student Exclusion Practices in Boston Middle Schools. c. November 1986. A report by the Massachusetts Advocacy Center, 76 Summer Street, Boston, MA, 02110 (617/357-8431). Contact: Stephen Bing, Director.

> This study describes the role middle schools play in the complicated phenomenon of dropping out and profiles promising practices in Boston middle schools.

Dropout Prevention, A Book of Sources. National Committee for Citizens in Education and National Center for Parents in Dropout Prevention. c. May 1987. NCCE, 10840 Little Patuxent Parkway, Suite 301, Columbia, MD 21044 (301/997-9300) or (800) NETWORK (638-9675). Contact: William Rioux, Senior Associate.

> This collection of resource descriptions and program profiles from around the country focuses on dropout prevention. It is intended to provide the reader with concrete ideas about current program initiatives.

APPENDIX B

Teenage Pregnancy Prevention Program Descriptions

Family Life Education (K–12)	Irvington, NJ
Mother-Daughter Communication	Boise, ID
In Touch	Dover, DE
Adolescent Life Options Center	Roxbury, MA
Postponing Sexual Involvement	Multi-Site
Teen Theater Troupe	New Orleans, LA
Spectrum Health Services, Inc.	Philadelphia, PA
Comprehensive School-Based Health Clinics	Kansas City, MO
Muskegon Area Planned Parenthood School-Clinic	Muskegon, MI
Male Involvement Program	Detroit, MI
Young Men's Clinic at Presbyterian Hospital	New York, NY
Comprehensive School-Based Programs	New York, NY
Multi-Service Family Life and Sex Education	New York, NY

Target Population: Elementary, junior high and high school students

Program Overview: Family Life Education program which begins in early elementary school and continues through high school.

General Approach

When New Jersey mandated that sex education be provided in all school districts in the state, a lengthy community process was begun to develop a family life program for the community of Irvington. With the assistance of parents and community members a developmentally appropriate curriculum was developed to be used in grades K-12. All involved classroom teachers have participated in in-service training which was conducted on school time. The program is now being implemented by a full-time Family Life Education Coordinator.

Program Operations

In the early elementary grades, the emphasis is put on the family. In grades four through six, content includes decision-making, peer relationships, the nature of sexuality, and a unit on child abuse, incest, and sexual assault. Grades seven through nine concentrate on a deeper understanding of the same issues, with more emphasis on dating, pregnancy, family planning, abortion, and self-esteem. In the high school curriculum, more consideration is given to relationships, life planning issues and parenting. This program has two features which distinguish it from many other Family Life Education curricula: it begins as early as kindergarten and it addresses "serious" topics, in an appropriate manner, as early as the fourth grade.

The Family Life Curriculum is being used in grades K, 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, and 12, and in all special education classes in ten schools. Students in grades K-6 have two class periods per week of Family Life Education and students in grades seven through twelve take the class daily for one eight-week period.

Teachers participate in a thorough in-service training which consists of approximately 18 hours of workshops conducted during school hours. This training takes place in the year prior to the one in which the teacher will use the curriculum in his or her classroom. Continued support is provided by the Coordinator of Family Life Education while the course is being taught. The methods of teaching Family Life Education are not different from the methods used in other academic areas. There are currently 140 teachers in the district who have been trained to implement the curriculum.

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or

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MOTHER-DAUGHTER COMMUNICATION BOISE, ID

Target Population: Mothers and daughters age 9-16 from high risk families

Program Overview: A series of five workshops designed to increase communication between mothers and daughters in the context of learning more about adolescence and sexuality.

General Approach

The five week, one night per week workshop provides information on sexuality to mothers and daughters, but most importantly, it seeks to open the channels of communication for family discussions. Similar programs are in operation through Planned Parenthood for fathers and sons and for mixed groups.

Program Operations

In October 1982, a one time workshop on sexuality and "growing-up" was offered to mothers and daughters in Boise, Idaho. This first session was viewed as an experiment, with mothers and daughters previewing a curriculum and audio visuals and providing feedback to the Planned Parenthood staff. Three months later, there was a waiting list of 60 mothers for the class, and by 1985, seven workshops were held each year.

The first of the five sessions is for mothers only. Mothers are introduced to the curriculum, invited to comment on it and to express any particular concerns they may have. Sessions two through five are for both mothers and daughters. Each week a homework assignment is given which requires families to set aside twenty minutes to discuss family values and the topics covered in class.

The sessions for 9-12 year-olds cover the following topics: 1) body image and self-esteem; 2) male puberty and the male reproductive system; 3) female puberty, menstruation and women's health issues; 4) human reproduction; and 5) peer pressure and decision-making.

Classes for 13-16 year olds girls and their mothers cover many of the same issues in greater depth and also discuss: sexual decision-making, the difference between "love and lust," birth control, sexually transmissible diseases, and adolescent pregnancy.

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Target Population: Adolescents and young adults in three counties

Program Overview: In Touch is a touchtone telephone tape system with messages about birth control, adolescent development, sexually transmitted diseases, and pregnancy, operated by the state public health department.

General Approach

In Touch, operated by the state public health department, provides a 24-hour information and referral service for the Dover community, and targetting, in particular, the adolescent and young adult population. Its goals are to inform callers on topics of birth control, adolescent development, sexually transmitted diseases, and pregnancy, and help callers gain access to available services responding to their needs.

Program Operations

In Touch is not a hot line in the sense of crisis intervention, but rather a touchtone telephone tape system with messages that provide information and referral services to callers from three counties surrounding Dover. Telephone numbers for the 40 educational messages, many in both male and female voices, are widely distributed. Each message can be tagged to refer callers to another number for direct contact. Callers can find out where to find family planning clinics (hours, locations, fees) and policies regarding services to minors.

The electronic device that makes this service possible is called "The Communicator", a system manufactured by the Data Acquisition Services of San Marcos, California. It includes a standard set of messages that can be modified for local use.

Evaluation

There were nearly 2,000 calls to In Touch in May 1987; 60 percent of these callers actually listened to the entire message. Of the 40 available messages, the ten most frequently called in May 1987 were (by name): Signs of Pregnancy; Love and Sex; Rap and Jocko; Myths About Sex; Me Pregnant?; How to Score; Am I Normal?; Homosexuality; How To Say No; and Condoms.

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Target Population: High-risk junior and senior high students

Program Overview: Teens work with a team of professionals and trained peer counselors in this multi-faceted intervention program that includes a Life Options program to reduce teen pregnancies.

General Approach

The Roxbury Adolescent Life Options Center provides teens with a comprehensive array of health and support services to prevent teenage pregnancy, promote academic achievement, and encourage career planning. These services, including counseling, case management, sex education, career preparation, and a personal development program, are offered through the Roxbury Comprehensive Community Health Center, in collaboration with the Planned Parenthood League of Massachusetts.

Intervention is based on the Life Options model, using the Center for Population Options' Life Planning Curriculum, and builds on to existing medical services. Planned activities focus on building self-esteem and encouraging youth to set goals. The Adolescent Life Options Center opened in April 1987; it is supported by foundation funding and accepts Medicaid and private insurance reimbursement for health services.

Program Operations

The Adolescent Life Options Center is located in the Roxbury Community Health Center; it will move to a separate facility, however, by the program's second year of operation. During this first year, the Center will be focusing on counseling, sexuality education, career planning, and personal development programs with an emphasis on case management and outreach. An academic component offering enrichment classes and tutoring will be developed over the next year.

A six week program, using the Center for Population Options' (CPO) Life Planning Curriculum, is offered for 12-15 year olds. Additional skills development and special interest classes are being arranged, as well. The program has set up a free membership system requiring "membership cards" for admission to the program to enhance a sense of ownership.

The CPO's Life Planning Education Curriculum's two objectives are to: 1) prepare young people for the world of work; and, 2) help them deal with their sexual and reproductive development, feelings and behaviors. These goals are implemented through nine workbook units and experiential activities. The activities start with an emphasis on personal qualities, values and goals. From there, teens consider their options, decision-making and parenthood. Finally, specific information is provided about sexuality, communication skills and employment. Three questions are dealt with: "Who am I?" "Where am I going?", and ✓ "How do I get there?" Through these activities, teens plan for ✓ their futures and learn that today's choices have an effect on that future.

Two focus groups -- one comprised of 30 teenagers, both male and female, and the other comprised of 12 parents -- were formed during the planning phase of the program and now meet regularly in an advisory capacity. Peer educators, as well, are being trained to spread information about the program, teach classes and lead discussions. Ten teenagers, half male and half female will soon be hired as peer educators. Staff include a project coordinator, sex educator, social worker, peer education coordinator, and an outreach worker. A male sex educator and male peer educators will be instrumental in conveying information to teenage boys. Because the Center is relatively new, not all staff members have been hired yet.

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POSTPONING SEXUAL INVOLVEMENT MULTI-SITE

Target Population: 13-15 year old boys and girls

Program Overview: A four part educational series which is designed to help young people identify and resist societal and peer pressure to become sexually active before they are ready. It provides factual information and an opportunity to develop and practice assertiveness skills.

General Approach

"Postponing Sexual Involvement" is a How-to-Say-No-Program which lets teenagers know that they can say no to sexual pressures. Participants learn to identify the pressures which make it difficult to say no, they are asked to consider the good reasons for saying no, and they have an opportunity to practice saying no in role playing situations. The program which is a community-based effort involving adult and older teen volunteers was developed by the Emory University Medical School and the Grady Memorial Hospital Teen Services Program in Atlanta, Georgia. It is being used in Atlanta and in other sites throughout the country. The program can be adapted for use in schools, community organizations, and churches.

Program Operations

The first two sessions of the four session program deal with the social pressures teens face. They explain the type of pressures teens face and they encourage teens to think about how these needs might be met without becoming sexually active. Participants discuss advertisements which use sex to sell products, sexual messages in music and on television, and direct peer pressure.

Assertiveness techniques are taught and demonstrated in the third session and practiced in the fourth session. A follow-up session held several months after the initial meetings reinforces these skills. Specially trained peers work with the groups of younger teens and are considered key to the process since they are more likely to get the younger teens to listen to them than adults.

Parents are considered an important part of the training. They are presented with a shortened version of the program and are given suggestions as to how they can encourage their children to say no.

Evaluation

The program was field tested in Atlanta, Georgia and Cleveland, Ohio in 1982-83. A follow-up evaluation in the Spring of 1984 indicated that 63 percent of the participants felt it had become easier to stand up for their own point of view when talking with their friends. Of the 53 percent who had an opportunity to become sexually involved, 80 percent had resisted the pressure.

A revised curriculum is now being used in the Atlanta Public School system. It will reach 15,000 eighth graders over a three year period.

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Teen Services Program
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(404) 589-4307 EXT 4204

Target Population: High school students in New Orleans

Program Overview: Using the performing arts, the program encourages high school students to make responsible decisions about sexuality, drug abuse, peer pressure, and suicide.

General Approach

Students at the New Orleans Center for Creative Arts (NOCCA), a public high school with an emphasis on performing arts, perform a series of vignettes called "Ask a Simple Question." The plays are presented to junior and senior high students and are developed by the participating student performers after a process of information gathering and values clarification. Each performance is followed by a question and answer session to address audience concerns and promote discussion about the topics presented in the plays.

Program Operations

"Ask a Simple Question" is a collaborative effort of the New Orleans Center for Creative Arts and the Louisiana Chapter of Planned Parenthood. The executive director of Planned Parenthood proposed the idea to NOCCA staff in 1985 and has been working with students and the NOCCA theater teacher to design and implement the program since then.

Students began by preparing four scenes addressing teenage pregnancy. They heard speakers from a variety of viewpoints in order to help them create the scenes. They also went through a series of values clarification exercises with the staff. Especially controversial topics such as abortion were avoided. In a typical performance, students perform ten to fifteen acts on topics such as date rape, peer pressure, "how to say no and mean it", and "how to talk to parents about contraceptives". Most scenes are left unresolved in the hope that teens will think seriously and come up with their own answers.

A question and answer period follows in which actors stay in character to listen and respond to the audience's ideas. Actors are prepared to provide factual information and can suggest local services which would be useful in a given situation. Rather than answer questions, the performers try to get the audience members to suggest how they would have handled a situation. Adult coordinators are around to assist the performers.

In an effort to improve follow-up, a resource handbook is being prepared for use by parents and teachers. In addition, wallet sized cards with phone numbers of local services will be distributed.

Source: This material was adapted from: Teen Pregnancy: Impact on the Schools, A Special Report from the Education Research Group, Roberta Weiner, Executive Director, 1987, pp. 69-75. (Case study prepared by Laurie Evans)

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or

Nelson Camp
Faculty Member
New Orleans Center for Creative Arts
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Target Population: Philadelphia teenagers

Program Overview: Community Health Center with programs specifically aimed at youth.

General Approach

This organization evolved out of Better Family Planning, Inc. -- one of the first community-based family planning programs serving the inner city in Philadelphia. There are two conveniently located sites -- a community health center and a family planning clinic. A wide range of services are offered. Select programs focus on serving the teen population and all staff are trained to work with teens.

Program Operations

Over 6,000 teens visit these clinics each year to receive general medical care, family planning care, individual and group counseling, to attend group information sessions on topics such as personal hygiene, human sexuality, and decision-making. Clinic hours include evenings and Saturdays to increase accessibility. Staff are trained to work with teen clients. Although teens can come to the clinic at any time, there is a three hour per week clinic time set aside for teens only when health education and counseling is provided in addition to regular health services.

A variety of techniques are used to get teens to come to the clinics and to ensure continued participation. Flyers, special interest groups, and incentives are used to attract teens. Recently, a $5.00 book of McDonald's gift certificates was offered to any teen who came to the clinic. A clinic staff member once offered a six week aerobics class to girls on the condition that they be patients at the clinic. After each aerobics class, there was a group presentation/discussion of a health topic of interest to teens.

The clinic works with neighboring schools by attending health fairs and providing speakers for classes. School nurses have been helpful in establishing and maintaining contact with clinic patients. Monthly phone calls and appointment reminders are used to keep teens involved.

In the fall of 1987 a Teen Outreach Program will be started. Teens will be trained to provide factual information to their peers and will participate in special activities as a group.

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Progress Haddington Plaza
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Philadelphia, PA 19139
(215) 471-2750

Target Population: Students in two junior high schools in New York City

Program Overview: Comprehensive School-Based Programs extend beyond health care to other domains, such as school remediation and family support, to help students in school.

General Approach

The Comprehensive School-Based Program (CSBP) is a demonstration project situated in two junior high schools with the worst reading and math scores in the city, located in the deprived Washington Heights area. The average enrollment of each school is 1100.

Students with a complex array of needs have access to health care, educational remediation and social service programs. The intervention has three objectives:

1. To provide comprehensive medical care on the school site or through referral to Presbyterian Hospital;
2. To provide a range of support services including educational remediation, after-school recreation, and family involvement; and
3. To monitor and evaluate these approaches with a view toward improving health status, improving school achievement, expanding career options and reducing pregnancy.

The project, funded by foundations, state grants and Medicaid reimbursement, is operated by the Center for Population and Family Health, Faculty of Medicine, Columbia University in conjunction with Ob/Gyn and Pediatric Services of Presbyterian Hospital, the only medical facility remaining in the neighborhood. Two years of work with school personnel, particularly principals, community leaders and provider agencies preceded the implementation of this program. The school-based clinics opened in the fall of 1986.

Program Operations

Services provided through the health component include physical exams and screening, treatment for minor illnesses and injuries, referral for family planning and specialized services to hospital outpatient clinics. Parental consent is required for enrollment. A social worker assesses the needs of each participant, and provides counseling and an appraisal of future services required. The clinic is open all year, Monday through Friday, from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.

The educational remediation component includes mentoring by volunteers currently recruited from area medical and public health schools, and from the community. Students are seen individually for help with homework and personal support and they meet in groups for workshops following loosely on a Life Planning curriculum. Volunteers also assist in after school and other group activities focusing on first aid, nutrition, risk-taking behaviors, and career awareness.

Extending beyond traditional counseling, the social services component involves families and creates linkages with other social service programs in the school and in the community.

Evaluation

Preliminary reports from the first few months of operation show that students are heavily utilizing services for a wide range of medical problems. An unexpectably large number of sexually active 14 and 15 year olds are being identified and referred to the Young Adult Clinic at Presbyterian Hospital. Over 75 percent of all students at the two junior high schools have already submitted signed parental consent forms.

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or

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Comprehensive School-Based Programs
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MUSKEGON AREA PLANNED PARENTHOOD SCHOOL CLINICS MUSKEGON, MI

Target Population: Students in two schools in Muskegon

Program Overview: A teen health clinic program run jointly by the local school board of education and the Planned Parenthood Affiliate clinics.

General Approach

Two Muskegon clinics provide comprehensive health care for middle and high school students in schools. These clinics provide easy access to medical services and counseling. They cooperate with a community Planned Parenthood clinic to meet the contraceptive needs of students by referring sexually active teens to the Planned Parenthood clinic in the community. Community clinic staff are also involved in the health and sexuality education program in the schools.

Program Operations

School-based clinics provide job and sports physicals, first aid treatment, skin care information, nutritional counseling, rubella tests, screening for iron deficiencies and sickle cell anemia, and pregnancy testing and counseling. A health educator is also on the school clinic staff and is able to make classroom presentations and provide individual counseling. Seventy percent of the students in one high school visited the clinic at least once last year.

The school clinics offer family planning physicals and counseling, but Michigan law prohibits the dispensing of contraceptives in schools so students needing this service are referred to the community clinic. Students receive information about contraceptives in school, but specific decisions regarding which, if any, method of family planning a student will use are made at the community clinic. In 1986-87, there were 2,007 general medical visits (non-family planning) at the high school clinic. During that same period of time, there were 189 visits related to family planning. At the junior high school, a lower percentage of the visits were for family planning. Parents are given information about the services provided at the clinics and are asked to return a form if they do not want their child to use the clinics. While parents are notified if a child has a serious health problem, confidentiality is maintained in cases involving family planning.

The cost of operating the two school clinics was $58,800 in 1985-86. Start-up costs were about $80,000. Space and maintenance is donated by the school; staff and materials are provided by Planned Parenthood. The primary funding source is currently the Michigan Department of Public Health.

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Office/Clinic Manager
Muskegon Area Planned Parenthood
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Muskegon, MI 49441
(616) 726-6620

Target Population: Adolescent and pre-adolescent males ages 9-19

Program Overview: Teenage males ages 15-16 receive 98 hours of human sexuality and outreach training to work in the community as peer-educators.

General

Each year, the Planned Parenthood Male Involvement Program in Detroit trains groups of five teenage males ages 15 to 16 in the area of human sexuality and sexual responsibility and on the process of relating that knowledge to their peers in the community. Trained peer educators give presentations to and lead rap sessions with their peers in schools, dentention centers, halfway houses, and other youth group settings. These presentations are available in a three county area around Detroit; an average of 25 adolescent males attend each presentation. The program started up in 1982 in response to the identified need to educate adolescent males, as well as females, on responsible sexual behavior.

Program Operations

A 96-hour training program for five Male Involvement Program participants is held once a year in conjunction with the Planned Parenthood League. Training sessions last about three to four hours each, and feature speakers, presentations, films, videos, discussion groups, and on-going group interaction. Peer educators from previous years are also involved in the training program where possible. Subject matter covered in the training includes: human sexuality, reproductive anatomy, birth control methods, sexually transmitted diseases, peer pressure, and male responsibility. Pre- and post-tests are given to all trainees before and after the 96-hour training period, and all must score 95 percent or above on the post-test to qualify as a peer educator.

Male participants are recruited from local high schools and from centers where previous presentations have been made. Each male selected must make a one year commitment to the program. These young men are paid $4.25 per hour for time spent in training and the ensuing one year of work as peer educators. Funding for this stipend comes from the Michigan Department of Social Services.

The Male Involvement Program Coordinator makes all arrangements for the training sessions as well as the majority of presentations to be held throughout the year. These peer educator presentations generally take the form of a formal presentation, film or video followed by rap sessions to process any questions and reactions.

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YOUNG MEN'S CLINIC AT PRESBYTERIAN HOSPITAL NEW YORK, NY

Target Population: Young men, ages 13-21

Program Overview: This hospital-based clinic offers young men a comprehensive array of health services, including family planning and condom distribution.

General Approach

The Young Men's Clinic at Presbyterian Hospital in New York City opens one evening a week (Mondays) exclusively for young men, ages 13-21, who are in need of medical services and advice, and are interested in learning about sexuality and reproductive health through a variety of educational programs. Clinic staff members do extensive outreach into the community to attract young men to the clinic, and provide educational programs in area schools, community centers and at sports events.

The Young Men's Clinic officially opened in 1984, and is run jointly by the Center for Population and Family Health, a division of the Columbia University School of Public Health, and Presbyterian Hospital. The actual clinic is situated in the Obstetrics and Gynecology Unit at Presbyterian Hospital.

Program Operations

The key to attracting young men to this clinic, according to Bruce Armstrong, Clinic Director, is offering a comprehensive array of health services. Most boys feel much more comfortable coming to a health facility for a sports injury, or physical exam, than they do for getting condoms or literature on sexually transmitted diseases. The hardest part of operating a health education program targeting young men is getting them into the clinic for the first time.

The Young Men's Clinic uses a variety of innovative techniques for recruiting boys to the clinic. One such technique is videotaping boys out in the community, playing ball or dancing, and then inviting them to the clinic to see themselves. There the staff, often medical students from Columbia University, discuss health related issues including family planning and offer physical exams and free condoms.

Other outreach techniques used by the clinic include sponsoring basketball tournaments, providing health education in schools and boys clubs, and canvassing neighborhoods. Increasing numbers of boys are being referred to the clinic by their girlfriends who have learned about the Young Men's Clinic through the counterpart Young Women's Clinic.

The clinic is open year round on Mondays from 4:45 p.m. until all who came have been seen. Although the clinic is not open to adolescent females during these hours, boys get the chance to learn about pregnancy and reproductive health, and ask questions of the medical staff available. The clinic sees between 10 and 25 young men each week. Films on a variety of topics related to sexuality are shown each night followed by discussion sessions. Clinic staff includes a health educator, a physician, and 5-6 male medical students from Columbia University who are available for individual one-on-one visits.

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MULTI-SERVICE FAMILY LIFE AND SEX EDUCATION
DUNLEVY-MILBANK AND EAST HARLEM CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY
NEW YORK, NY

Target Population: Black and Hispanic urban adolescents

Program Overview: A community-based multi-service pregnancy prevention program that provides adolescents with a system of daily support and educational services, intensive monitoring and consistent adult supervision. Parental involvement is a significant aspect of the overall approach.

General Approach

The Multi-Service Family Life and Sex Education program reflects the thinking of Michael Carrera, who put together its various program components using collaborative partners from the Children's Aid Society and a number of other agencies. Currently 150 pre-teens and teens, ages 11-18, and 50 parents participate in this community-based program. Of the original group which enrolled in February 1985, all, except those who have moved away, are still actively involved.

Program Operations

There are seven Primary Prevention Programmatic Dimensions that interface with each other in this program:

1. Medical and health services - available on site four hours each week, offers complete physical and gynecology exams, contraceptive counseling and prescriptions, and weekly counseling.

2. Self-esteem enhancement through the performing arts - two hour weekly workshops with parents and teens led by professionals from National Black Theater. Issues, including conflict resolution, enhancing communications skills, overcoming job problems, and family and gender roles, are confronted through music, dance, role play and drama.

3. Lifetime individual sports - skills training in squash, tennis, golf and swimming, each emphasizing self-discipline, self control and a precise mastery.

4. Education assistance - a complete individual educational needs assessment and prescription for individual and group tutorials, given by volunteers and educational experts. Homework help is available two afternoons a week.

College admission program - Certificates are given at the beginning of the program guaranteeing a place as a Freshman at Hunter College following completion of the teen pregnancy prevention program and achieving high school equivalency. All college costs will be subsidized.

5. Family life and sex education program - a 15-week, two hour weekly, separate programs for parents and teens, including a holistic view of sexuality, using readings, films, role playing, lectures, and video playback.

6. Job club and career awareness program - a weekly two hour program conducted by employment specialists to help students explore career possibilities, secure a social security card, complete working papers and apply for jobs. Each teen secures a job either at the central program site, or as part of an Entrepreneurial Apprenticeship Program, and opens a bank account and contributes to it bi-weekly.

7. Counseling - two counselors are employed to provide advocacy in the home and in the school and to address problems that require individualized on-going attention.

Contact is made every day with each of the 150 adolescents participating in this program and their parent(s); every evening, a session for the adolescents and their parents is scheduled. Athough this is very labor intensive, it sends a clear message that the participants are valued and their participation is important. Michael Carrera provides much of the personal counseling and staff training. Other staff includes medical personnel contracted by two hospitals, specialists in employment, educational assessment, sexuality counseling, and theater arts. Volunteers from the Junior League are used for mentoring.

Currently there are two operating centers, and a third one is scheduled to open in October 1987. The cost per participant is about $1250 per year. While early support has come from the Department of Social Services and the State Council on Children and Families, approximately three-quarters of the budget originates from private sources.

Evaluation

Since the program began, two of the girls have become pregnant and, according to the staff, none of the boys have caused a pregnancy. None of the participants have dropped out of school, and all were employed during the summer of 1986 and 1987 and all opened bank accounts. Results from an evaluation study will be available in November 1987.

Contact: Michael Carrera
Multi-Service Family Life and Sex Education Program
Dunlevy-Milbank Children's Aid Society Center
14-32 W. 118 Street
New York, NY 10026

ADDITIONAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON ADOLESCENT PREGNANCY PREVENTION

The following sources of information may be useful to candidate communities as they develop their plans for adolescent pregnancy prevention strategies:

I. Sex and Family Life Education Resources

Brick, Peggy. Positive Images: A New Approach to Contraception Education. Planned Parenthood of Bergen County, 575 Main Street, Hackensack, New Jersey, 07601 (201/489-1420).

> This manual, including 16 lessons on reproductive knowledge and contraceptive use, was developed for local Planned Parenthood Affiliates and is used in the local public schools.

Family Life Educator. ETR Associates, 1700 Mission Street, P.O. Box 8506, Santa Cruz, California, 95061-8506 (408/429-9822). Contact: Sandra Ortiz Ludlow, President.

> A quarterly journal put out by the National Family Life Education Network that summarizes the latest findings in sexuality issues, family health, religious programming, funding, etc. ETR Associates publishes a wide array of sex education and family life education materials, and has a training component.

Planned Parenthood Federation of America. Planned Parenthood Review, Vol. 6, Number 2, Spring, 1986.

> This edition includes an overview of several teen pregnancy prevention programs.

SIECIS (Sex Information and Education Council of the U.S.), 80 Fifth Avenue, New York, 10011 (212/929-2300)

> SIECIS is a clearinghouse for sex education activities, and publishes a bi-monthly report that summarizes books, articles and films and presents substantive analyses of current issues.

II. Life Planning Resources

Carol Hunter-Gegoy. Life Planning Education: A Youth Development Approach. The Center for Population Options, 1012 14th Street NW, Washington, 20005 (202/347-5700) Contact: Jackie Manley, Coordinator of Family Life Education.

> The Life Planning Education curriculum manual is written to accommodate a wide range of leaders and organizational arrangements from community groups that may want to offer short intense courses to schools to incorporate the life planning curricula into general health education.

Life Skills and Opportunities Curriculum. Summer Training and Education Program (STEP). Public/Private Ventures, 399 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA, 19106 (215/592-9099)
Contact: Alvea Branch, Associate Director for Research

> This curriculum is a revision of Life Planning Education, used for low-income junior high school students in the STEP program which combines school retention, job placement and pregnancy prevention.

Choices: A Teen Woman's Journal for Self-Awareness and Personal Planning. Girls Clubs of America, 205 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10016, (212/689-3700). Contact: Catherine Smith, Director of Family Life Education Projects.

> Choices is a workbook for a course called Future Planning for Young Women which engages students in activities that will challenge them to think about their futures, in the areas of family life and work outside the home.

III. Promoting Male Responsibility Resources

Men's Reproductive Health News. The Task Force on Men's Involvement in Family Planning and Reproductive Health of the Population Section of the American Public Health Association. Contact: Douglas Beckstein, Hidden Valley Center for Men, P.O. Box 392, Soquel California 96073 (408/476-4167)

> This newsletter highlights men's reproductive health.

Dryfoos, Joy. Review of Programs and Services to Foster Responsible Sexual Behavior on the Part of Adolescent Boys. The Carnegie Corporation, 437 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10022. Contact: Gloria Primm Brown (212/371-3200).

This is an overview of male sexually-responsible behavior.

The Missing Ingredient: A Conference Report. May 1986. The Center for Population Options, 1012 14th Street, NW, Washington DC 20005.

This report discusses the need to include males in pregnancy prevention efforts.

IV. School-Based Clinic Resources

School-Based Health Clinics: A Guide to Implementing Programs. Support Center for School-Based Clinics, 5650 Kirby, Suite 148, Houston, Texas 77005 (713/664-7400). Contact: Sharon Lovick, Director.

The Support Center, a division of the Center for Population Options, offers technical assistance and training to potential and current providers of health services in school clinics. It puts on an annual conference for the field, distributes "how-to" materials, and publishes a quarterly Clinic News.

The St. Paul Story: A Working Manual on the Pioneer School-Based Clinics in St. Paul Minnesota. Health Start, Inc., 640 Jackson Street, St. Paul, MN 55101.

Health Start, Inc. provides technical assistance and training on starting and operating local clinics.

V. Additional Pregnancy Prevention Resources

Adolescent Pregnancy Prevention Clearinghouse. Children's Defense Fund, 122 C Street, Washington, DC 20001 (202/628-8787) Contact: Karen Pittman, Director of Clearinghouse.

CDF has launched a major initiative built on public education and media campaigns, networking and coalition building, policy analysis and development. In addition to a national conference held in Washington each year, CDF publishes a series of reports dealing with model programs, services in schools, demographics of teen pregnancy, adolescent health and welfare issues.

Urban Middle Schools Pregnancy Prevention Program. Academy for Educational Development, 680 Fifth Avenue, New York, 10019 (212/397-0040). Contact: Michelle Cahill, Director UMSPPP.

The UMSPPP project oversees eight innovative middle school programs that combine pregnancy prevention with "life options" approaches. All of the programs involve the school system with one or more collaborating community agencies. AED staff are available for program consultation.

A Coordinated Strategy on the Issues of Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting in New York City. The Adolescent Pregnancy Interagency Council, The Mayor's Office of Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting Services, 250 Broadway, Room 1410, New York, 10007 (212/566-3450).

This document presents data on needs and services and includes a number of recommendations to city agencies regarding program implementation and improvement.

Adolescent Parenthood: Developing a Comprehensive Community Plan Around Issues of Teenage Pregnancy. Women and Foundations, Corporate Philanthropy, 141 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10010 (212/460-9253). Contact: Joanne Hayes.

This is a manual that tells how to organize representative planning conferences at the early stages of community development.

APPENDIX C

Youth Employment Program Descriptions

Tenneco/Jefferson Davis Business School Partnership	Houston, TX
Primerica Corporation/Martin Luther King, Jr. High School Partnership	New York, NY
New York City Grantmakers	New York, NY
BRIDGE	Multi-Site
Philadelphia Academies	Philadelphia, PA
T.O.P.S.	Birmingham, AL
Jobs for America's Graduates	Multi-Site
Career Beginnings	Multi-Site
Partnership Project	Portland, OR

TENNECO/JEFFERSON DAVIS BUSINESS SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP HOUSTON, TX

Target Population:	9th through 12th grade youth who are academically and economically disadvantaged
Program Overview:	This adopt-a-school partnership program offers 100 high school students pre-employment training, summer jobs, summer school enrichment courses, community volunteer work, tutoring, counseling and mentoring.

General Approach

In 1981, Tenneco, Inc. "adopted" Jefferson Davis High School in Houston to help upgrade the quality of education and to better prepare students who are likely to drop out of school to assume more productive roles as workers and citizens. The goals of the program are to provide guidance, social services, and subsidized summer jobs for all students fulfilling program requirements who are academically and economically disadvantaged. Post-graduation job search assistance follows completion of the in-school program. Tenneco provides over $100,000 per year for the program.

Program Operations

Following a 40-hour year-long, after school course in pre-employment training, 100 students are placed in seven-week summer jobs in non-profit organizations. Fridays are reserved for in-school enrichment activities and all participating students are required to complete 20 hours of community volunteer work. Counselors are available to assist students with problems that might be interfering with their academic lives. Other features of this adopt-a-school partnership model include tutoring and mentoring by Tenneco employee volunteers and a wide variety of activities aimed at boosting teacher morale, student achievement and attendance, and overall school spirit.

This adopt-a-school program grew out of the personal commitment and leadership of Tenneco's Office of Community Affairs and the principal of Jefferson Davis High School. As an example of company commitment, Tenneco employees are given work-release time for tutoring in the program.

Contact: Carol Kemp
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Houston, TX 77001
(713) 757-3930

PRIMERICA CORPORATION/MARTIN LUTHER KING, JR. HIGH SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP

NEW YORK, NY

Target Population: Martin Luther King, Jr. High School students

Program Overview: This adopt-a-school program offers after-school activities to all students, incentives for student attendance and achievement, and supplementary equipment for courses.

General Approach

The Primerica Corporation/Martin Luther King, Jr. High School Partnership is not targeted to a specific group of youth. Rather it seeks to serve an entire high school population by using resources of the Primerica Corporation and Foundation to enrich the school environment, motivate students toward increased involvement in school and related activities, and improve students' perceptions of themselves and the largely unfamiliar corporate society around them.

The partnership is nationally known because the Chairman of Primerica Corporation, formerly the American Can Company, William Woodside, has become a major spokesperson for corporate civic involvement in public schools and has regularly demanded that Primerica seek innovative ways to involve itself with the school despite the geographic distance and socio-environmental contrasts between the two institutions. A fundamental goal of the program is to provide the opportunity for employees of Primerica to alter their perceptions of public schools and increase their participation in community affairs.

Program Operations

Martin Luther King, Jr. High School was regarded as one of New York City's most troubled schools. It is located on the edge of Harlem. It had become a "dumping ground" for students unable to get into selective vocational or career programs in Manhattan. Well over half of its students tested consistently more than two years below grade level. One hundred percent of the school population is minority.

The cornerstone of the partnership model is a grant from the Primerica Foundation of $25,000 per year to be used for programs and objectives developed by the school in consultation with Primerica staff. This money has been used to fund after-school activities, to provide incentives for student attendance and achievement and to provide supplementary equipment for courses. While most programs are tailored to the specific needs of the school each year, many remain constant from year to year. It is estimated that at least 300 students participate in funded activities each year. Examples of regular program services include:

- A security guard training program administered by Primerica in conjunction with Burns International Security.
- An unpaid eight-to-twelve week internship program held at Primerica twice during the year for about 15 students per year.
- A one-day-long World of Work program administered by a Primerica insurance subsidiary.
- A yearly renewable $1,000 scholarship for an outstanding Martin Luther King, Jr. graduate.
- Periodic one-time programs designed to teach students about Primerica Corporation -- including the holding of an annual shareholders' meeting at the school and the preparation of a "student annual report" on Primerica.

The New York City Board of Education facilitated the initiation of the partnership through its Join-A-School program but has left the parameters of the partnership up to the discretion of the individual participating organizations. The basis of this partnership is an agreement by the Board of Education to permit close cooperation between the school and the corporation, including the transfer of substantial amounts of funds for school projects.

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NEW YORK CITY GRANTMAKERS SUMMER PROGRAM — NEW YORK, NY

Target Population: Youth in New York City's summer jobs programs

Program Overview: A combined summer job and educational services program to arrest or reverse learning loss over the summer.

General Approach

The Grantmakers program was designed to test the relative effectiveness of combining job and educational services during the summer as compared to a "work only" summer experience. Convinced by the familiar evidence that reading levels among disadvantaged youth "decay" during the summer, the program's designers and sponsors wanted to see if basic skill instruction during the summer could arrest or reverse that learning loss.

Program Operations

Begun in the summer of 1983 by a coalition of local grantmakers, this program originally added a "fifth day" of pre-employment and work maturity skills training to the traditional work-only summer program. In the three years that followed, the "enrichment" has shifted its fifth day to a primary focus on basic skills remediation and other learning offered in the Comprehensive Competencies Program. The CCP is a computer-assisted, computer-managed instruction system which provides a flexible approach (open-entry, open-exit) to dealing with individuals at their own pace. (See Appendix A for description of CCP).

Evaluation

A carefully designed comparison-group study was carried out by Andrew Hahn of Brandeis University. The findings showed that the combined summer learning and jobs approach was beneficial. While the youth in the comparison group had the same general characteristics -- they were just less than 17 years old on the average; they were still in school; they scored roughly three years below grade level on standardized reading -- they "lost" an average of four months in achievement while working during the summer, while the participant group gained nearly five months on the average.

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for Advanced Studies
Center for Human Resources
Brandeis University
415 South Street
Waltham, Massachusetts 02254
1-800-343-4705

Target Population: Ninth and tenth graders testing below grade in reading or math, and exhibiting other dropout-prone characteristics

Program Overview: Provides year-round, dropout prevention initiatives including educational remediation, job skills and life skills instruction.

General Approach

The BRIDGE project, a national demonstration in five cities, managed by Public/Private Ventures, provides year-round, dropout prevention initiatives to at-risk youth in transition from middle school to high school. Its goals are to prepare dropout-prone youth to enter advanced level, school-to-work transition programs, to enhance academic skills, and to promote collaboration among school, businesses and community agencies in serving younger disadvantaged students.

BRIDGE programs are currently operating in Hartford, Connecticut; Stanford, California; Flint, Michigan; South Bend, Indiana; and Seattle, Washington. Local school systems and Titles II A and B of JTPA are the principal funding sources for each program, although local business groups also contribute additional financial and in-kind support.

Program Operations

BRIDGE participants receive academic credit for up to 10 hours a week of remediation, job skills and life skills instruction during the school year. In each of two summers adjacent to the 9th and 10th grades, the youth get at least 80 hours each of classroom work and paid employment. BRIDGE students are also offered help with personal and family problems by staff and community volunteers and a place in their school's existing school-to-work transition program in the 11th grade.

The local institutions participating in each BRIDGE program vary according to their relative strengths and weaknesses. The most common institutions involved in BRIDGE include the public school system, the local employment and training entity, business representatives and other community-based agencies. Local businesses and various non-profit organizations provide job slots for program participants.

Exemplary features of the BRIDGE model are its year-round program operation, and its special class for credit that offers group and individual study skills, instruction in basic skills, life skills, and preparation for the world of work. Its supportive services component, aimed at retaining students in school, focuses on the comprehensive needs of students. Business and community involvement in planning, curriculum design and implementation are essential to the BRIDGE program.

Contact: Michael Sack
Program Officer
Public/Private Ventures
399 Market Street
Philadelphia, PA 19106
(215) 592-9099

Target Population:	High school students (grades 9-12) testing below the 30th percentile on the California Achievement Test and demonstrating a good pattern of attendance in junior high school
Program Overview:	This four year, school-within-a-school program provides comprehensive, integrated training in specific vocational areas to students who are at some risk of dropping out.

General Approach

The Philadelphia High School Academies is a four year school-within-a-school program which gives students training in specific vocational areas including technical, job search, and job retention skills. It provides qualified students with access to part-time work/study employment opportunities while maintaining basic skills instruction in the curriculum. To be enrolled, students must test below the 30th percentile in the California Achievement Test, show a pattern of good attendance in junior high school, and indicate an interest in the appropriate vocational area represented by their local Academy. The program is set up to catch those students who under normal circumstances would not participate in special programs or magnet programs. The Academies currently enroll approximately 1,300 students.

The Philadelphia High School Academies Association is a separate not-for-profit corporation composed of representatives of the business community, especially those whose firms are most directly affected by the vocational training provided by the Academies. Each separate Academy also has a separate board whose membership is much more closely linked with the vocational training area.

Program Operations

The Academy model has four separate academies defined by subject matter -- Business, Electrical, Applied Automotive and Mechanical Science, and Health Care. These academies are located in 10 different high schools and five businesses -- two each of Electrical and Health Care, and one Applied Automotive and Mechanical Science. Each Academy is headed by an executive director who acts as a link between the academy and the corporate community for such resources as funding, advisory board members, tours, and employment opportunities for students.

Students are part of the host high school but are actually enrolled in a special program within that school. Students take their basic skills and vocational courses together in a fairly regimented sequence. Students have limited subject selection in terms of electives, and even in the non-vocational courses (such as math and English) the particular subject matter of the Academy is stressed and used as illustrative examples.

Teachers are assigned to the Academy, and generally teach only Academy students. Academy students are likely to have the same teachers for all four years, creating a close student/teacher relationship. If a student is absent, the lead teacher in each school immediately calls him/her at home. Teachers meet regularly to review students' progress and develop solutions for individual students who are having difficulty.

Business participation is substantial and includes regular meetings at the high schools to review program operation, student progress and academy needs. Businesses give students "real life" interviews, and provide support in the areas of funding, advisory panel service and provision of summer and part-time work/study jobs for students.

Normal instructional costs are borne by the school district. Funds for additional teaching responsibilities are paid by donations from the private sector. Administrative costs are either borne as an "in-kind" contribution by private corporations or by direct contributions to pay the salaries of Academy personnel. Student wages are paid by participating corporations who may use local, state or federal subsidies to partially underwrite the costs of summer and after-school employment.

Contact: Hendrik Koning, Executive Director
Philadelphia High School Academies Association
c/o Philadelphia Electric Company
2301 Market Street (524-2)
Philadelphia, PA 19101
(215)841-5568

NOTE: The California Legislature has funded ten Academy programs, modeled on the Philadelphia High School Academies, in ten school districts in California. For more information on the California Academies, contact:

Charles Dayton
Consultant
Department of Education/Policy Analysis
for California Education (PACE)
University of California at Berkeley
Tolman Hall
Berkeley, CA 94720
(916) 265-8116

TEEN OPPORTUNITIES PROMOTE SUCCESS (TOPS) BIRMINGHAM, AL

Target Population: Students who have completed their junior year of high school, have been present a minimum of 80 percent of the time and have maintained a "C" average

Program Overview: Participants work during the summer after 11th grade and attend special classes that teach them career awareness, job search skills and appropriate work behavior.

General Approach

The Teen Opportunities Promote Success (TOPS) program aims to prepare youth to obtain jobs or to seek additional education or training after high school. TOPS offers a combination of paid employment and life skills classes to students who have completed their junior year of high school, have been present a minimum of 80 percent of the time and have maintained a "C" average. At least 80 percent of the youth must meet JTPA eligibility requirements.

The goals of TOPS are: 1) to provide youth who are unlikely to "make it" on their own after graduation the experience and confidence needed to obtain a job or to seek additional training; 2) to provide businesses an opportunity to contribute to the community in a visible way; and 3) to meet the needs of students not served by existing programs within the school system.

Program Operations

TOPS operates year-round and includes a six-week Preparatory Training Program (PTP) during the spring which is mandatory for all juniors accepted into the program. Participants work during the summer or the school year and attend special classes that teach them career awareness, job search skills and appropriate work behavior.

The TOPS model requires the presence of an intermediary organization responsible for program management. TOPS is operated by the Birmingham Area Alliance of Business, an organization of local businesses formed soley to oversee the development of TOPS. Youth are employed by local businesses. The program receives funding from the Birmingham Private Industry Council and employs teachers from the Birmingham Public Schools to teach TOPS classes. The Birmingham Private Industry Council provides about 80 percent of the funding for the program; private sector contributions make up the rest.

TOPS bridges the gap between schools and businesses through the efforts and experience of key staff members, the use of "loaned executives" to recruit new businesses, and the care with which jobs are recruited. It requires substantial participation by businesses in overseeing program management and in providing jobs for youth.

Contact: Marsha Ham, Executive Director
Birmingham Area Alliance of Business
2027 First Avenue North
Birmingham, AL 35203
(205) 326-4153

Target Population:	High school seniors who are at-risk of unemployment
Program Overview:	Jobs for America's Graduates focuses on reducing youth unemployment by providing basic employability skills and private sector job placement to high school seniors.

General Approach

High school seniors lacking basic employability skills may enroll at their discretion in this skill building/job placement program. Jobs for America's Graduates aims to provide basic job finding and job retention skills training and orientation to the world of work. It links high school graduates with private sector job placements, and focuses on the need to motivate young people to complete high school and to become productive members of the work force.

The national office, Jobs for America's Graduates, Inc., is located in Washington, DC. It provides technical assistance to the local programs and once a year is responsible for "accrediting" each program to ensure that basic elements of the model are in place.

Program Operations

During their senior year, students engage in 40 - 60 hours of instructional and motivational activities. Job specialists work closely with participants to identify career interests and opportunities and to instruct them in good work habits and attitudes as well as the basics of finding a job. Youth who need to improve their math and reading skills receive remedial help.

Each job specialist is responsible for between 30 to 50 youth. At the end of the school year, specialists and business representatives work together to place students, and for the next nine months, specialists follow-up on participant progress. All participants belong to a student career association that sponsors activities to develop self-confidence, motivation, positive work attitudes, and refinement of employability skills.

Presently, the program is located in local school systems in ten states under the aegis of a non-profit public service corporation. The boards of these entities typically consist of leaders from business, education, labor and government. School systems help to identify program participants and to house the job specialists.

Funding sources vary with each program. Usually, however, sources include JTPA, business and foundation support. In five of the programs, state government is another source of financial support.

Contact: Linda Kohler
Special Assistant to the President
Jobs for America's Graduates
1250 Eye Street, NW, Suite 303
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 842-4196

CAREER BEGINNINGS MULTI-SITE

Target Population: 100 high school juniors from low-income families in each of 21 cities

Program Overview: A multi-site college-business initiative to provide the job experience, adult guidance, support services and information necessary to help students graduate and make a successful transition to college and career.

General Approach

Career Beginnings is a multi-site demonstration program funded by the Commonwealth Fund and managed by the Center for Human Resources at Brandeis University. Its central thesis is that if resources and attention are targetted to disadvantaged but motivated high school juniors, they will go on to graduate from high school and either attend college or get a job. To accomplish this, the program brings colleges and business groups together to build a career oriented support system for local Career Beginnings programs. Currently, there are 24 programs -- each serving 100 students -- operating in 21 cities.

Program Operations

Career Beginnings' grants of $100,000 (to be matched with private or public sector funds) cover 100 students at each project site. Each project includes four principal components.

1. One-on-one mentor assignments for participating students. Mentors are members of the local business/professional community.
2. A six-week quality summer work experience.
3. Once-a-week summer workshops to teach students how to find and apply for a job or college.
4. Year-round support services to help mentors become more effective, to help students with career planning and other personal or academic/career problems.

While the program developers acknowledge that each of these components is familiar, they hope the combination will have a particularly strong effect.

Evaluation

Because the program just began in 1986, no evaluation data are yet available. As of the summer of 1987, 70 percent of the 2,301 students involved have either been accepted to college or have made applications and expect to be accepted.

Contact: William B. Bloomfield
Project Manager
Career Beginnings
Center for Human Resources
Brandeis University
415 South Street
Waltham, MA 02254
1-800-343-4705

THE PARTNERSHIP PROJECT PORTLAND, OR

Target Population: 10th and 11th graders who have at least a "C" average, and who are economically disadvantaged

Program Overview: This school-to-work transition program offers educational remediation, work experience skills and daily contact with 40 students in each of two Portland high schools.

General Approach

The Partnership Project in Portland, Oregon, is a school-to-work transition program operating in two Portland high schools. It works toward four main objectives: 1) providing minority and disadvantaged young people with work experience during high school; 2) learning work and school "maturity" skills; 3) remediating basic skills and math problems; and 4) encouraging participating juniors and seniors to stay in school and get their diplomas. Student progress is monitored intensively as daily contact is made with each participant.

Program Operations

The Portland Partnership, described as a "Regional Plan to Combat Youth Unemployment," began in 1983 as a small school-to-work transition program in one high school and is currently expanding to a second high school.

Forty students are chosen from each school on a basis of their good attendance, maintaining at least a "C" average, and being economically disadvantaged. They work part-time (up to 20 hours a week) during the school year while staying in school full-time, and work full-time in the summer. They enroll in a Partnership Personal Growth class, are assigned to special remedial classes where needed, and earn credits towards graduation for both work and special class attendance.

Students are placed in full-time jobs after graduation, unless they enroll in college. All students are offered counseling in college and vocational interests, and are offered supportive services such as day care, counseling, tutoring, transportation, etc., where appropriate. All students participate in a three-week, competency-based, pre-employment skills training course, for which they also receive academic credit negotiated with the school district.

The Partnership program is run by the Business Youth Exchange, a special agency set up by the Portland Chamber of Commerce, and operates as part of the Portland Investment Program, a city and county-wide effort directed by a high level leaders' roundtable including the Mayor, Chair of the PIC, the Superintendent, community college presidents, and county and city commissioners.

Evaluation:

Of the 100 students who have been through the program through July of 1987, 89 are employed and/or in college, four dropped out, one is unemployed and seven could not be contacted. All of the students in remedial math and English classes showed one to three years skill gain.

Contact: Kathy Treves
Director of Partnership Project
Business Youth Exchange
221 NW Second Avenue, Suite 300
Portland, Oregon 97209
(503) 228-8617

ADDITIONAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

The following sources of information may be useful to candidate communities as they develop their plans for youth employment strategies:

Public/Private Ventures. A Practitioner's Guide, Strategies, Programs, and Resources for Youth Employability Development. P/PV, 399 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA, 19106 (215/592-9099).

> This guide sets forth basic principles for the establishment of a comprehensive youth education and employment system. It is designed for use by those who are engaged in the actual planning and operation of programs--government policy makers, directors of agencies, and services providers. The guide focuses particularly on those youth who are at greatest risk of becoming or remaining chronically unemployed.

Otterbourgh, Susan D., Ed.D. School Partnerships Handbook. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ, c. 1986.

> This "how-to" resource book provides comprehensive guidelines and materials for developing effective business-education partnerships. It covers virtually all steps in the process of forming, managing, and extending such programs, and includes many sample forms drawn from nearly 200 existing partnership programs.

McNett, Ian E. Let's Not Reinvent the Wheel: Profiles of School/Business Collaboration. Tilden Press, Washington, DC, c. 1982. Institute for Educational Leadership, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 310, Washington, DC, 20036.

> IEL explored through interviews and background documentation the scope and activities of 10 collaborations between schools and business. This book profiles each collaboration, traces the history of education/business relations in the 20th century, and draws some conclusions about the nature of successful school/business collaboratives.

Hahn, Andrew and Robert Lerman. "What Works in Youth Employeemnt Policy?" Committee on New American Realities, Washington, DC. c. 1985.

> This book reports on findings from two decades of research on youth employment programs.

Lefkowitz, Bernard. Jobs for Youth: What We Have Learned, A Report from the Field. c. 1982. The Edna McConnell Clark Foundation.

This report is based on 283 interviews conducted in 17 cities during January, February and March, 1982. Those interviewed came from a broad cross section of each community. The interviews were focused on the question: Which strategies and policies designed to provide access to employment for disadvantaged youth should be preserved, changed or rejected?

Company-School Collaboration: A Manual for Developing Successful Projects. Education Relations and Resources, American Council of Life Insurance, 1850 K Street, NW, Washington, DC, 20006-2284.

The American Council of Life Insurance has developed this "how-to" book to assist communities in developing successful company-school collaborations.

Business & Education: Partners for the Future. c. 1985. Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1615 H Street, NW, Washington, DC 20062, (202/659-6000). Contact: Robert Martin.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States highlights the emerging national trend of business-education partnerships in this study, and profiles many of the successful existing partnerhips.

Youth Employment and Training Programs, The YEDPA Years. Betsey, Charles L., Robinson G. Hollister, Jr., and Mary R. Papageorgiou, Editors. Committee on Youth Employment Programs, Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, National Research Council. c. 1985. National Academy Press, 2101 Constitution Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20418.

This study assesses the knowledge about youth employment and training programs, based primarily on programs carried out under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA). It evaluates the YEDPA research strategy and summarizes the lessons learned from YEDPA for future policy development and program implementation.

A Policy Blueprint for Community Service and Youth Employment. c. September 1984. The Roosevelt Centennial Youth Project, Youth Services America, 810 18th Street, NW, Suite 705, Washington, DC 20006, (202/783-8855). Contact: Frank J. Slobig, Co-Director.

> This "policy blueprint" outlines a two-tiered community service and youth employment program. Recommended administrative and organizational specifications are set forth in a companion document, Programmatic Options for a Nationwide Community Service and Stay-in School Program.

An Action Guide for Collaborative Councils. c. 1981. Prepared by Max Elsman and the Industry-Education-Labor Collaboration Project, The Center for Education and Work, National Institute for Work and Learning, Washington, DC.

> This handbook is intended to be a guide for anyone wanting to build collaborative relationships in a community, or to improve what already exists. It suggests steps that can make the building of collaborative partnerships a smoother process.

APPENDIX D

Youth Case Management Program Descriptions

New York City Dropout Prevention Program	New York, NY
RECAP Program	Boston, MA
Teacher-Advisor Program	Norfolk, VA

Target Population: Junior and senior high school students

Program Overview: The concept of case management is used in this comprehensive school-based program to help prevent students from dropping out.

General Approach

New York City's Dropout Prevention Program utilizes the concept of case management to help prevent students from dropping out of school. Operating in ten junior and senior high schools in New York City, the schools contract with one or more community-based organizations to provide a team of service workers within the school.

Program Operations

Both the particular mix of workers and the community-based organization selected is based on the greatest needs of the at-risk students within that school. The teams, while different in each school, include some mix of the following:

- a certified social worker who serves as the case manager
- an attendance liaison officer
- a family abuse counselor
- a substance abuse counselor
- a job developer or employment counselor
- a family health practitioner
- an educational remediation specialist

Once the community-based organization is selected, the team, which generally consists of 4-5 persons, moves into the school and becomes an active and integral part of the school building. Teams work from 9:00 a.m. until 5:00 p.m. and provide evening, weekend and summer services as well.

When a teacher, administrator or parent feels that a student needs the services of this team, they may refer the student to the case manager. The case manager in turn assesses the need and, if appropriate, designs a service plan that utilizes the expertise of the team members or other outside professionals.

Contact: Dr. Victor Herbert
Superintendent for Dropout Prevention
Borough of Manhattan Community College
New York City Board of Education
199 Chambers Street, Room S614
New York, NY 10007
(212) 618-1000 EXT 1449

Target Population: Middle school students who are one or more years behind their age-appropriate grade level

Program Overview: RECAP is a school-based program offering individualized support services and the incentive of accelerated grade advancement.

General Approach

The RECAP Program is a Boston Public Schools' Alternative Education Program that operates primarily at the middle school level. It offers students who have repeated at least one grade, and who have a history of attendance and disciplinary problems, the incentive of a double grade promotion and, most importantly, a system of individualized support services to help them make changes and re-engage in school.

RECAP staff assert that student disengagement and alienation from school is the major cause of failing to complete assignments. Each RECAP student has a case manager who assures that they attend classes, monitors academic progress, mediates conflicts between students and teachers, and offers support and counseling for personal and academic problems.

Program Operations

Students and their parents must sign an individual behavioral contract as a condition for participating in RECAP. This contract stipulates that the student will meet all standards for promotion required of other middle grade students: 85 percent attendance in each quarter, passing grades in all subjects, and appropriate conduct. In return, students are promised the chance for two grade promotions in one year, once in January and once in June.

Every school with a RECAP program must free up one staff member, cooperating agency worker, or paid parent liaison for at least the first two and a half hours every morning. This "youth advocate" does whatever is necessary to get RECAP students to school in the morning (e.g. wake-up calls). Home phone calls and visits are made on a daily basis to reinforce the high attendance goal. Advocates monitor students' academic grades, check to see that homework assignments are turned in on time, and mediate conflicts interfering with student progress. Advocates personalize the contract both students and parents have with the school, and communicate positive expectations that students can meet the terms of their contracts.

The RECAP Program is particularly suitable for middle schools and has the following characteristics:

1. It operates entirely with the mainstream of the school. While it targets students at-risk of dropping out, it is not a pull-out program.

2. RECAP students are selected on the basis of need rather than for their potential to prove the program's success.

3. The program actively involves parents in the contracting process -- they get to know at least one adult in the school who can discuss their child's needs.

4. RECAP's community service component informs students and families of available resources to meet their needs.

Currently RECAP is operating at 15 school sites covering five Boston school districts. The program serves 13 middle schools and four alternative programs with a total enrollment of approximately 300 students. Upon completion of individual contracts, RECAP places eighth grade students in over twenty high school programs at mid-year.

Evaluation

RECAP students have succeeded in fulfilling contracts at a rate of 70 percent. Success is attributed to fact the that RECAP offers students a reason to stay in school through short-term attainable goals along with daily support and follow-up by the "youth advocate". Of the approximately 240 students in the program in the 1984-85 school year, 90 percent earned at least one promotion, and 40 percent earned two promotions.

The number of Boston's middle school students who could benefit from this program, including at least 1800 students who have repeated a grade at least once, far exceeds the current program enrollment of 300.

Source: This material was adapted from:

The Way Out, Student Exclusion Practices in Boston Middle Schools, by the Massachusetts Advocacy Center, Boston, November 1986.

Contact: Philip R. Dushku, RECAP Program Director
Washington Irving School - rear Area B Office
60 Hawthorne St.
Roslindale, MA 02131
(617) 327-5932

TEACHER-ADVISOR PROGRAM NORFOLK, VA

Target Population: Middle school students in Norfolk

Program Overview: Groups of 15-20 students are assigned to each teacher-advisor for individual and group counseling, and emotional and academic support.

General Approach

The Teacher-Advisor Program trains and supports middle school teachers to be advisors for all middle school students through counseling, emotional support, and encouraging a sense of responsibility and positive self-concept. The goals of this program are to bring students closer to teachers, to provide students and their families with at least one teacher to whom they can call on for personal support and assistance, and to give students a chance to share their ideas and learn from others.

The Teacher-Advisor Program began in 1984 when Norfolk changed over to the middle school model; it operates as an integral part of the educational core of all Norfolk middle schools, and is a high priority of the schools, enjoying visibility and strong district and community support. This program was developed by middle school principals, teachers and counselors under the direction and continued support of district staff, with information supplied by several national organizations.

Program Operations

Teachers receive a week's training in student counseling and support, and are provided with a detailed guidebook. Each regular middle school teacher acts as a teacher-advisor for a group of 15-20 students. The teacher-advisors meet with their groups an average of twice a week for 30 minutes, and make time for one-on-one meetings with students on personal problems originating from home or school. Teachers are encouraged to have joint meetings with students and their parents, and can make direct referrals to counselors, nurses, and community agencies when appropriate.

Teacher-Advisors use the guidebook to identify ways of initiating group activities that can be used to lead discussions into sensitive topics among students. The underlying rule during all group meetings is that no "put-downs" are allowed by either the students or the teacher. Peer reviews of teacher-advisor activities and in-service trainings are held several times each year, and the head counselor for each school monitors and supervises their respective programs.

Source: This material was adapted from:

Academy for Educational Development, "A Survey of Primary Pregnancy prevention Activities for Early Adolescents in Six Cities", March 1985, pgs. 35-37

Contact: Dr. Pamela Kloeppel
Director of Guidance
Norfolk Public Schools
800 E. City Hall Ave.
Norfolk, VA 23501
(804) 441-2640

THE ROLE OF CHILD CARE IN THE NEW FUTURES INITIATIVE

Written By: Karole Ready

With: Mary Bucher
Laura Escobedo
Stephanie Vendig

Edited by: Bea Gold

Introduction to Child Care Paper

This is the first in a series of supplementary papers to the New Futures Strategic Planning Guide. These supplements are intended to expand on the themes and approaches contained in the Guide in a way that will help planners in the ten cities. None of these supplements should be seen as "amendments" or new ideas which differ from the goals already stated in the Guide; rather, the supplements treat at greater length important subjects discussed briefly in the Guide which the New Futures staff believe to deserve additional explanation.

Like the materials contained in the Guide, the supplementary papers are intended to provide a framework for local decisions, not a set of prescriptions. A planning team should not automatically assume that it must follow the advice of the supplements if it wishes to be one of the five cities. To the extent that the approaches of this and forthcoming supplements differ from the priorities set by broadly based local planning teams, the locally determined goals and strategies should prevail. But the supplements are offered as further technical assistance and a broader perspective on issues which are too often treated in a fragmented way, but which really are interrelated.

Child care as a topic is of special importance to New Futures, as the introduction to this paper makes clear. The emphasis of New Futures (see p.34 of the Strategic Planning Guide) on the middle school years is a deliberate one, and one which New Futures planners should understand as a real priority. But unhappily, as the Supplement and the attached resource materials make clear, there are many ways in which the concerns of these younger at-risk youth and child care issues intersect. Some of these youth are parents already; the under 15-year old age group is the only group of teens whose birth rates are not declining. Some are at-risk of becoming parents, in part because they have idealized having a baby as a happy, easy experience -- or because they haven't considered the consequences of parenting at all. Some of these youth are at-risk because they come home to empty houses and lack the after-school recreational and educational supervision they need. Child care centers, parent education, and vocational approaches to child development, as discussed in the Supplement, can help these at-risk youth have a better future by understanding fully what is involved in responsible parenting.

Child care can obviously help one of the highest-risk groups of all -- those teens who are already parents -- from becoming parents a second time, which worsens their statistical prospects far more than having a single child. With recidivism among teen parents at rates as high as 20% in the first year and 50% in the second year, these are all issues which affect younger adolescents directly, in our view. These teen parents need special help, so that what is now a major barrier to their future -- their parenting -- can instead become a resource for the early intervention needed to avoid yet another generation of at-risk youth. As a recent New York Times editorial noted, such intervention

> could save three children at once:
> The teenage mother, her baby, and
> the child she is persuaded to defer
> at least until she has finished school
> and gained both maturity and job skills.

For planners and community agencies preparing their New Futures programs, this guide may be helpful in pointing out how good child care programs can reinforce other goals. School systems need to use this guide and the excellent source book prepared by the Academy for Educational

Development, In-school Child Care, to recognize how parent education and dropout prevention depend on good child care for teen parents. Job training programs need to understand that the schedules and gender orientation of many training programs are biased against teen parents in many ways, and that without child care the best training and employability programs are totally inaccessible to such youth.

This Supplement also makes clear how important case management can be to insuring that teen parents and other at-risk youth receive the full range of services they may need as parent: child care referral, diagnostic health care, parent education, assistance with financing options to pay for child care, and job training provided on a schedule that is consistent with both school and parenting. The case manager of a teen parent needs to link both parent and child to an array of services that can be confusing and intimidating without skilled, caring case management as a guide.

The resources described by the CYFS staff at the end of this supplement are available to planner, and the Foundation encourages New Futures teams interested in child care programs to use these resources in support of the emerging policy directions of the local planning process. The Foundation will provide additional help in contacting and using these resources, as appropriate in view of local priorities.

THE ROLE OF CHILD CARE IN THE NEW FUTURES INITIATIVE

THE ANNIE E. CASEY FOUNDATION

Developed by:

Child, Youth, and Family Services
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Bea Gold, Executive Director

September, 1987

THE ROLE OF CHILD CARE IN THE NEW FUTURES INITIATIVE

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INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Any program that seeks to effect a comprehensive decrease in teenage pregnancy and high school dropout statistics, as well as a similar increase in teens employability, must be designed to meet the practical needs of that sizable segment of youth who are already, or who are at risk of becoming adolescent parents.

Teen parents need to believe themselves competent -- as learners, workers, and citizens -- and also as parents. The new families emerging may be healthy ones, or they may be troubled. Emotionally healthy parents communicate their belief in a hopeful future to their children, through their words, actions, and plans. The young parent who is able to establish the foundations of a hopeful future for herself and her child has a far greater chance for continued self-sufficiency and success after high school graduation. But for most teen parents, healthy parenting and a belief in the future will emerge only if nurturing the healthy family becomes a goal of program helping those at-risk youth who are also at-risk parents.

Pregnancy prevention, education, and employment strategies can be effectively woven into the child care services through case management which links teen parents to the other services they need for self-sufficiency. In the same way that the special education field uses an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) to specify goal sand services to be provided for handicapped children, the student parent's case manager can develop a services plan and obtain, broker, or facilitate services through other community programs.

Research suggests that girls who are at greatest risk of becoming mothers during adolescence are those who perform poorly in school, see little chance of career opportunity, and have generally low self-esteem. Pregnancy is the most common reason female students state for dropping out of school. One study has determined that 40% of the female student drop-out rate is directly related to child care issues. Another was determined that 80% of teen mothers do not finish high school. Gail Eshner and David Clark write in their book, Newborns at Risk:

> "The medical and social consequences of adolescent parenting are currently being examined closely. The focus over the last several years has been the intellectual performance of children born to teenage mothers. Maternal educational achievement varies considerably between younger and older mothers. In a ten-year follow-up period reported by Coll, Vohr, and Oh (1984), only 35 percent of the teenage mothers had completed high school versus 77 percent of older women. As might be predicted, postgraduate education, job skills, employment opportunities, and income were significantly lower among the adolescent mothers. The children of teen mothers achieved less well in school and repeated grades more often than children of older women."

A recent California study revealed that availability of child care dramatically increases graduation rates for student parents. Child care for their infants, toddlers, and preschoolers can be a primary incentive to teen mothers to complete high school which in turn increases both parent's and child's potential for academic success, skills acquisition, and economic self-sufficiency. (It must be noted here that the writers are quite aware that teenage males become parents in tandem with their female partners, and that they should be included at every step possible. However, reality states that it is the mother that carries the lion's share of the burden and the social impact. While fathers are by no means to be excluded from the goals of this component, the focus of this guide will be on teen mothers.)

In addition to the obvious facilitating advantages in providing convenient access to reliable child care to teen parents, there are many other short - and - long-range potential advantages to including child care as an integral part of the services for at-risk youth. The services suggested in this Strategic Planning Guide Supplement can be designed to assist in meeting the overall New Futures goals:

- increase teen parents' ability and motivation to continue their education and participate in job training, thus increasing self-sufficiency and employability.
- reduce pregnancy recidivism rates.

- increase teens' parenting and general family living skills, enhancing their ability to create healthy families.
- broaden the teen's vision of his or her life potential through the support and empowerment provided by the case manager.

Child care services can address the needs of several overlapping target groups defined within the scope of the New Futures Initiative:

1. **Teen parents**:

For teens who are already parents, child care can be used as both an incentive and part of a reward system for school and job training attendance; it can enable a parent to seek after-school or summer jobs.

National studies indicate that 60-80% of first time teen mothers have a second child within two years. Child care services may reduce pregnancy recidivism through expanding the student's sense of her own potential as she completes school. When child care is combined with effective parent education for the teen parent, her knowledge and skills are increased as she learns both how much work and how many rewards are involved in healthy parenting.

2. **Pregnant teens**:

Obviously, until the teen delivers her baby, no child care is needed. Also, some mothers may prefer to leave their babies with competent and willing family members rather than in a child care facility. However, with well planned case management and curriculum development, support services and education can begin prior to deliver: helping the parent(s) to plan for, seek, and select child care; emphasizing the importance of consistent health care both during pregnancy and after; and preparing the mother to care for her newborn.

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3. Teens identified as being "at risk" of early pregnancy:

A child care center or family day care home can be used as a field placement and/or observation site built into the high school family living curriculum, demonstrating to students first hand the responsibilities and restrictions inherent in parenthood. "Latchkey" child care programs for younger middle school children, providing after-school recreation with adult supervision, might also include remedial instruction combined with family-like reinforcement and counseling.

4. Teens wanting to explore career options in early childhood:

In addition to providing curriculum opportunities for parenting and general family-living classes, a child care program can also provided on-site training and employment opportunities for students who are interested in careers in early childhood development.

5. The children of the teen parents:

The final group, the "children of the children", by virtue of their parents' at-risk status, is most vulnerable to becoming the next generation's at-risk population. As parents' skills increase, so does the child's potential for education, social, and vocational success. Carefully and thoughtfully designed child care services promote and support healthy families and thus bring about positive changes far into the future.

A program built on sound principles of early childhood development can also break the unemployment/poverty cycle by providing the young child with an environment which presents a developmentally appropriate curriculum and maximizes cognitive and social/emotional development in critical formative years. A child care program of high quality nourishes the young child's positive self-image and begins to plant early seeds of a broad sense of his or her potential. Ultimately, this is the most preventive part of the program, carrying intervention into the second generation.

Though the focus of this supplemental guide is on child care, it might be more accurately considered the child development component. Child care is at the hub of a wheel that includes spokes of parent education, early childhood career education, family skills curriculum, early identification and intervention for children with handicaps, child abuse prevention, and resource linkages. With a case management role woven throughout the spokes, services to teens can be provided in a consistent, well-coordinated, and individualized manner with all groups listed above.

DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY OF CHILD CARE SERVICES

BASIC CHOICES: NEW OR EXISTING SERVICES

Each New Futures community needs to make a basic judgment as it begins to assess its child care services as part of a New Futures plan: Are existing services adequate to meet the needs of New Futures youth, or will new child care services need to be developed? If New Futures planners determine that new programs will be needed, one set of strategies will be required. If, however, the greater problem appears to be getting access to existing child care services for New Futures youth, a different approach will usually be required. Since redeployment of existing community resources is a primary New Futures requirement, it will be important to avoid a hasty judgment that new funds should be spent to create expensive new services. Full utilization of existing services and funding sources will be essential if New Futures planners are to avoid the temptation simply to set up new programs and avoid redeployment issues. Given the time- and resource-consuming nature of new programs, linkages to existing program should be fully explored by New Futures planners.

Refer to Appendix A for a definition of existing child care service delivery models. Two types are discussed: 1) direct service models and 2) assistance and support models. In Appendix B, each model is described briefly, with its advantages and limitations. This information is only meant to provide an overview. The excellent handbook, In School Together, and the pamphlet, Child Care Resources in Your Community, are included with this guide for the specific purpose of providing more detailed information and guidelines.

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The issues of quality and licensing are discussed in Appendix C as it relates to services for teen parents and their children; as in most endeavors, poor quality child care can undermine the goals of the project.

COMMUNITY COLLABORATION IN CHILD CARE SERVICES

Whether New Futures planners elect to work with existing services or to create new ones, community collaboration will be an essential feature of in the development of needed child care services. Planners are strongly encouraged to contact, and work closely with local child care professionals (See Appendices D through E) and existing providers through each phase of program design, development, and implementation.

A first step in establishing an inter-agency collaborative approach to child care is to ascertain the potential need among participants (teen parents and pregnant teens) as well as to inventory the current child care programs, providers, and services in the community. If a local Resource and Referral agency (Appendix F) is not available to assist in identifying existing child care resources, a local college or university interested in urban social policy issues may be able to gather the needed information. Besides determining how many children may need care, it is important to estimate children's ages and the hours that care will be needed. While it is most likely that the survey will reveal a shortage of adequate services and long waiting lists, particularly in programs which are funded to serve low-income families, it will be equally important to assess whether existing funds are fully utilized on behalf of New Futures youth.

The success of community partnerships, consortia, and other collaborative efforts depends on the mix of contributions of the individual partners. Each partner may have a different motivation for involvement and may bring different resources to the project. A key is to seek partnerships with other programs whose needs coincide reasonably, and who, as a group, have an adequate combination of potential space, technical expertise, and money.

Partnerships are possible with colleges, Chambers of Commerce, Private Industry Councils, state agencies and departments, other foundations, and a variety of community agencies and groups sharing the concerns and goals of the New Futures Initiative.

Collaboration in the Use of Existing Resources:

Should the needs assessment determine that there are adequate and appropriate child care resources in the community, the New Futures contractor may want to establish agreements with service providers. There are many incentives which might encourage agencies and providers to come into the New Futures collaborative network. Some examples of possible collaboration include:

1) Child care centers: Directors may respond to the basic need of this student population and wish to serve them but feel they need to have support for the undertaking. New Futures funding or either new or redeployed local resources might provide support personnel to enhance the adult/child ratio, using student workers or cross-age tutors, or a local college may be able to initiate an intern program for Child Development students that places them in child care programs. Or, New Futures planners may be able to develop a connection with school district special early education personnel who can act as in-service training consultants to the center.

2) Resource and Referral Agencies: R&R's may consider the additional connections with school district or other community resources as an incentive to assist the Project. Other incentives may be in-kind contributions to the R&R program from local businesses. (e.g., used furniture, office equipment, printing).

3) Family Day Care Homes (FDCHs): A New Futures project may wish to provide child care through existing FDCHs. In order to avoid having to deal with several individual providers on every issue, it might be possible to gather the individual home providers into a network coordinated by a local child care agency or R&R. The local child care resource and referral agency might be able to provide coordination and administration, ongoing training, support and evaluation of services to the FDCHs, as well as placement services to the New Futures parents.

4) A consortium of New Futures, local business(es), and a child care program may undertake a fundraising effort to create child care scholarships. Such efforts can be good for community relations, advertising, and advocacy for child care.

5) A business (or consortium of businesses) might want to underwrite a Resource and Referral program or a Vendor Payment Program to assist New Futures teens and the employees of the business(es). Tax deductions are available through categories of "necessary business expense" and "charitable contributions;" some states provide tax credits as well. Thus, the business's public image is enhanced at the same time it is addressing and pressing need of its own employees.

6) Publicly-funded programs may offer options that enhance the broader New Futures job-training goals while assisting with child care at the same time. If a parent is enrolled in a JTPA training program, JTPA support services funds might be applied to the cost of her child care. Or, the Project might become a JTPA training contractor, training assistant teachers for early childhood programs and placing the trainees in the child care facilities affiliated with the New Futures project. A local Headstart or Parent Child Center program may provide part-day care for age - and income - eligible children as well as a job training placement for teens.

GENERAL FUNDING RESOURCES

The involvement of local businesses should be considered an important element in planning, whether for resource development or ongoing delivery of services. In light of the steadily decreasing pool of adequately prepared adults to fill entry level jobs, employers are beginning to recognize that high school graduation is itself an employment issue of immediate concern. Sharing in the development of child-care through New Futures is a means for business to further the goal of a more stable and competent workforce.

Federal, state, and local governments should not be overlooked as a direct source of operational money. New Futures emphasis on redeployment of existing funds demands a thorough review of all federal and state funding for child care, such as Title XX, Community Development Block Grants, Head Start, Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), WIN (work incentive Program for welfare recipients), and other sources.

Over the long range, given New Futures' 5-year time frame, child care funding can also be justified by its role in interrupting the welfare cycle with a resultant increase in tax revenues. Several states have recently increased child care funding as a part of their statewide work-to-welfare projects, and therefore represent a potential new funding resource for some clients under purchase programs. Federal legislation is pending which could expand available child care funds tied to welfare reform. Providing funding to assist with the cost of child care for the New Futures population can also reduce state costs for remedial education in elementary school in subsequent years.

For children with disabilities, new federal legislation provides both resources and regulations which may be helpful. In 1986, President Reagan signed P.L. 99-457, the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1986 (amending P.L. 94-142). The new act significantly expands funding and services of local education agencies for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers who are in need of early intervention services and their families. Title I of the initiative calls for increased services for handicapped infants to three years of age, mandates the development of individual family service plans for participating families, and establishes a timeline requiring all participating states to phase in full early intervention services by 1991. Title II expand services to handicapped children between three and five years of age. Each state's Education Agency must pass its own legislation and submit state plans in order to be eligible to receive the federal funds appropriated.

Finally, widespread community support for the project and the involvement of influential individuals in an advisory capacity can create a climate of advocacy in which local charitable institutions, such as United Way or community foundations, may see great value in expanding funding to teen parent child care programs.

III. PARENT EDUCATION IN THE CHILD CARE PROGRAM

While child care is a practical service for student parents in New Futures project, it is the parent education component that can make it especially valuable in reaching New Futures goals. Without this curriculum attached to the child care facilities, the program might in fact serve only an isolated colony of New Futures students. When linked together with parent and family education and job training opportunities, it becomes a comprehensive program for a much larger audience, well-expanded beyond its first-line teen parents.

Parent education provides information and insight into the developmental needs of young children; traditionally, it assumes that the parent has the maturity to transfer the concepts presented into consistent and positive child-rearing techniques. The design of parent education for teenagers (parent and non-parent alike) must be adapted to take into account the developmental and psychological characteristics and needs of teens.

Today the average school-age parent is not the 18 year old almost ready to graduate from high school. More typically, she is 15 or 16 years old with two to three years of high school education still ahead of her. Even 14-year old parents are not uncommon. Developmentally and psychologically, the young adolescent has even more limited ability to integrate the knowledge than is required to care for a child. Realistically, parent education for teens has to be viewed as a long-term process which helps the young parent grow up, rather that a series of parent education lectures.

Often the teenager's lack of parenting ability is simply due to the fact that the parent is still psychologically and developmentally a normal adolescent. Only as the parent matures, does parent education become easily internalized and parenting skill increase. Appendices G and H detail developmentally typical and normal characteristics of adolescence which must be considered when designing parent education curriculum and defining of parent expectations and responsibilities.

If child development/parenting classes are also an integral part of the child care services, the parent can be introduced to a first-hand understanding of sound principles of early childhood development, substantially enhancing her parenting skills and ability to create a stable family. Appendix I identifies some basic characteristics of quality child care programs which are linked to teen parent education. Examples of course content, for both classroom and practicum, are outlined in Appendices J through L.

A comprehensive approach is required to support the young parent's development of responsible and successful parenting skills. A variety of strategies and approaches must be coordinated or linked so that the services provided are not fragmented or incomplete. However, program designers are urged to be realistic, and take into account the many other valid demands on the student parent's time (e.g., vocational training, regular studies, other homework, and age-appropriate extra-curricular activities). As always, balance and timing are critical to success.

IV. SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR AFTER-SCHOOL PROGRAMS

The need for after-school programs for younger, middle-school children is also becoming a recognized factor in the problems of at-risk youth. An excellent resource was issued by the Children's Defense Fund in July, 1987, Opportunities for Prevention: Building After-School and Summer Programs for Young Adolescents. It presents both demographic data and programmatic details, including several model programs, that would be helpful to New Futures planning teams. It cites a 1984 Census Bureau study which shows that more than 4 million children ages 9 to 13 lack adult supervision after school; the data further reports that 2.3 million of these children go home to an empty house or the care of an older sibling.

A narrow perspective which sees day care solely as a freestanding service can overlook the opportunity to use a full range of services to children and youth as a means of developing there full potential of all youth. It is not just latchkey children, as the CDF publication points out, but all children who can benefit from adult supervision and enrichment of their after-school activities. After-school care can fill in a major services gap which nearly every New Futures community will identify when it completes its inventory of services to middle-school aged children. At the same time, an after-school care program can be designed to integrate and reinforce the broader New Futures efforts toward teen pregnancy prevention, pre-employment awareness, and dropout prevention in a less formal after-school setting.

Schools also face challenges and opportunities in responding to the problems of after-school care. School buildings that are used year-round and all day long are one of the signs of a community that has a vision that is larger than the traditional school day from 7:30 am to 2:30 pm. After-school programs do not necessarily have to be away from school; they can use school facilities and some school staff, with adequate resources, to operate after-school activities which contribute to the overall youth goals of the whole community.

Existing youth service providers, such as local Parks and Recreation departments, might be able and willing to extend their after-school services to older middle-school children, adding components of family education to previously recreation-only programs. Several national organizations, including the YMCA, YWCA, Girls Clubs, and Boys Clubs, have developed new prevention programs that can be replicated with local resources. Libraries and community centers can enrich their recreational programs with educational, family life, and pre-vocational curricula.

V. THE CHILD WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Children born of teenage mothers are statistically at very high risk of being born with or developing handicapping conditions. Gail L. Ensher and David A. Clark in their book Newborns at Risk, report:

> "A mounting body of research shows that risk factors are substantially heightened with the birth of an infant to a teenage mother. Potential hazards include more pregnancy complications; greater incidence of premature, low birth weight, and growth retarded infants; higher newborn mortality rate during the perinatal period; and more environmentally associated difficulties eventually leading to developmental delay."

Having a child with a handicapping condition adds new burdens to the many barriers already faced by the teen parent. New Futures programs must be prepared to address the unique needs of this special sub-group of teens. Low birth weight, which has been directly linked to a lack of prenatal care, and the "failure to thrive" syndrome are most common; both impair normal development and can lead to further disabilities. The birth rate of drug-exposed infants is increasing at an alarming rate, and with it the likelihood of serious developmental impairments, deafness, health impairments, learning disabilities, mental retardation, physical or orthopedic handicaps, visual impairments, blindness, speech/language impairments, and emotional disorders.

The child care program can be a most effective avenue through which to assist parents of children with disabilities. Beyond enabling school attendance and job training, the New Futures' goals of self-sufficiency, competence, and employability can be fostered by a child care program which assists parents to obtain needed special education and/or related services for their child, and which provides support and counseling to parents as they learn to cope with the child's special needs.

If the student is brought into the children's services component when she is pregnant, rather than after the infant is born, her prenatal care can be monitored by a case manger; this preventive strategy alone may reduce the incidence of low birth weight and preterm delivery.

New Futures programs should also be prepared for the possibility that some participating teens themselves, both parents and other students, will have handicapping conditions, including learning disabilities, mild to moderate mental retardation, emotional/behavior disorders, health impairments (e.g., epilepsy, diabetes) and physical disabilities. Many of the resources listed in Appendix M, both individuals and agencies, will be helpful with disabled adults as well as with young children.

Though the handicapped child falls outside the New Futures Initiative target population, this disabled child can represent such obstacles and failure to the teen mother that the goals of the New Futures would be seriously thwarted without some intervention or support. It is to the advantage of the teen mother, the child, and the staff to see that the child's special needs are diagnosed, that therapy is provided, and that the parent is given a foundation of support that enhances New Futures goals. For further detail on identifying a child's handicapping condition, resources for children and families with disabilities, insights and considerations when working with parents of children with handicaps, and appropriate care settings, please refer to Appendices J-M.

VI. STAFF TRAINING

The caregiver may easily be one of the most influential members on the New Futures team, since daily she models positive childrearing practices for both parents and other students, as she interacts with, engages, feeds soothes, and enjoys the infant. The importance of the caregiver's unique, cross-age skills can not be emphasized strongly enough.

There is no dispute that training is the key ingredient in quality child care for all children. The National Day Care Study (Abt Associates, 1980) points out that caregivers with specialized training and education have positive impact on children's behavior and success in later educational settings. Training gives staff new information, opportunities for skill development, and feels of confidence and growth. Caregivers need on-going training about:

- understanding the needs of communicating effectively with the adolescent parent.
- the community resources available for information, consultation, and support for the child and/or parent with special needs.
- identifying and intervening for the abused child, or the child at risk of abuse
- child development (speech/language, social/emotional, motor, and cognitive) -- how to recognize advances and delays in a child's development
- methods for mainstreaming children with specific types of handicaps
- the grieving process and other experiences of parents of handicapped children
- observation and recording of children's behavior and development
- how to develop and implement an individualized program for each child
- classroom environment and curriculum activities

For a list of many of the training resources to be tapped, perhaps for in-kind services, refer to Appendices C and D.

VII. EXPECTED OUTCOMES AND EVALUATION MEASURES

It will be difficult to isolate and evaluate any single component in a comprehensive New Futures Initiative project. The target groups overlap; the activities and strategies overlap. However, there are a few statistically measurable indices of the impact and success of this child care component toward project goals. It is expected that:

1. the incidence of pregnancies, both first and repeat, will decline among teen parents involved in the parenting education course
2. the percentage of teen parents who finish high school after childbirth will increase
3. the number of teen parents who enroll in college will increase
4. the incidence of low birth rate and other congenital handicapping conditions will decrease among those students who attend parenting education classes during pregnancy
5. several community agencies and business will collaborate on design, development, and funding of child care
6. New Futures students who may or may not be parents will be trained for entry level careers in early childhood education.

Other quantifiable measures to be established will depend on the child care model(s) selected and funding sources sought. Project planners will develop their own criteria to fit their unique program design. These might include such items as number of JTPA trainees placed in child care centers, and number of teen parents returning to mainstream schools after enrollment in special off-site programs, as a way of assessing dropout rates for teen parents over time.

There will be more qualitative or subjective measures of success as well -- personal stories of young people who lives took new direction, who became very skilled and nurturing parents, who left a tradition of unemployment and welfare to enter the workforce with competence and confidence. Planners are encouraged to keep anecdotal records as well as statistical ones, for it is the human story, rather than abstract figures, that provide depth to any measure of success.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The benefits of establishing comprehensive child care services as an integral part of the New Futures Initiative have been identified from both functional and philosophical perspectives.

- Child care is needed to enable school-age parents, particularly mothers, to attend school and/or job training programs.
- Child care can be used as incentive for the student parent's school attendance.
- The child care program can provide extensive opportunities for secondary students to develop parenting and general family-living skills.
- With thoughtful staffing and parent training, positive interaction and bonding between parent and child can be fostered, thus facilitating the development of a healthy family.
- Pregnancy recidivism may be reduced by increasing parent's depth of appreciation for and enjoyment of responsible parenting.
- For middle-grade students who have no structured activities after school, and are often completely unsupervised, child care in the form of recreational or tutoring programs provides extended opportunities for reinforcement of New Futures goals.
- For the targeted parent, a child care program may break family poverty cycle by enabling her to continue her education, take an after-school job, and/or participate in job training.
- For the teen's child, a program built on sound principals of early childhood development will carry intervention to the next generation by providing goal-directed learning experiences; encouraging maximum cognitive, motor, language, and social-emotional development; and fostering development of positive self-regard in particularly critical years.
- With well-planned case management tied directly to the child care program, the variety of services needed by this particular population of at-risk teens can be sought, obtained, and tracked carefully. Both teen and child will be seen as whole individuals rather than compartmentalized according to need for child care, parent education, special education services, or case management.

The child care component is not intended to serve an isolated colony of New Futures youth. The target groups defined by the New Futures Initiative overlap. Students with poor self-esteem are at greatest risk of not finishing high school, which severely limits their employability; the females in this vulnerable group are also at greatest risk of too-early pregnancy, further increasing the likelihood of their dropping out. However, pregnancy is most often a symptom of a more pervasive cause. Low self-esteem feeds the student's perceived lack of competence, potential, and hope. Poverty and perceived lack of competence feed on each other. While obviously no panacea for the youth crisis the New Futures Initiative seeks to correct, a child care program can offer not only a needed service to teen parents, but also a sound base enabling many students, parents and non-parents alike, to seek new paths.

Within the New Futures Initiative, the child care center or program is not seen merely as a place to keep a child so that the parent can go to biology class and enroll in on-the-job training. Rather the facility is seen as providing rich opportunities to reach the teen parent in very unique and life changing ways.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MODELS OF CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY

DIRECT SERVICE MODELS

- **Child Care Center: A facility specifically designed or renovated for the purpose of caring for children, either half - or full-day.** Children are grouped according to age and/or developmental level, with teams of trained staff. There are set hours of operation and a developmentally appropriate curriculum structure.

- **Family Day Care Home (FDCH): A home in which the resident has been licensed (in most states) to care for a small number of children.** Services vary from home to home, from mere babysitting to a formal curriculum program.

- **Family Day Care Home Network: A group of FDCHs with varying degrees of administration, coordination, and general support provided by an outside agency such as a community based organization or a school district.** Generally, standards of care are established which must be adhered to by participating providers. On-going training is provided to and required of network providers. The administrating agency also assists parents in placing their children in the FDCHs.

- **Center with Home Satellites: A combination of a child care center and a small number of FDCHs supervised and supported by the center program.** Infants may be placed initially in a satellite FDCH and transfer to the center when they reach pre-school age. Parents may be given the option of center or home enrollment. This system allows for flexibility of service to the families involved, particularly as relates to siblings of different ages, varying hours of use, and the occasional need for care for a mildly ill child.

ASSISTANCE AND SUPPORT MODELS

- **Child Care Resource and Referral Service: Publicly- and privately - funded programs which provide information and counseling about the range and availability of child care services within a specific service area.** The service may be free or the consumer may be charged per request. Provided that sufficient child care exists in a community, these programs can assist parents in locating and selecting child care. Resource and Referral programs are often funded to develop additional child care resources or to provide training to existing providers.

- __**Vendor/Voucher Payment Programs**__**: Systems which pay a subsidy for child care to eligible families either through direct payments to child care providers or reimbursement to families.** The Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) is an example of a vendor payment program; JTPA contractors have the prerogative to use their support services funds to reimburse a trainee's child care costs. In this and other government-funded programs, eligibility is usually based on low income and may require that parents be employed, in school, or job training program. Businesses sometimes offer child care subsidies to their employees as part of a "cafeteria-style" benefits package.

- __**Program Grants/Subsidies**__**: Funds provided by state governmental agencies, school districts, business, or other private non-profit agencies and paid directly to centers or FDCH Networks to subsidize providers' costs.** Parent fees are established on a sliding scale fee based on income. Parents who receive AFDC can be placed on a "working mother's budget" which reimburses them for partial payment of child care fees or decreases their deductions from the monthly AFDC grant. Businesses will sometimes subsidize a child care center in return for a given number of enrollment slots for employees.

The following charts compare each model, its benefits and limitations. A New Futures Project may want to contract with an existing service provider or with several types of providers for broadest coverage. Or, the Project might design and administer its own service, again based on one or more of the models described.

CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL	ADVANTAGES FOR NEW FUTURES PROJECTS	LIMITATIONS/CONSIDERATIONS
1. CHILD CARE CENTERS A facility specifically designed for that purpose. Staff is trained; works in teams. Children are grouped by age or developmental level. Curriculum and program schedule are usually structured.	• Services can be provided to children and parents in one central location, increasing social contact and peer support among teen parents and facility administration. • A center is a more permanent facility; stability and availability of care are less jeopardized by staff changes, illnesses, or vacations. • Licensing regulations usually require that staff have at least basic education in early childhood development. • A center can be used as a work experience or job training site for other students. • Family skills curriculum can incorporate student observations at the center.	• A center can be costly to develop and equip, in both time and money. (If school site is available, some costs will be reduced.) • A large group environment is not suitable for all children.
a. Private, Community-based Centers Child care centers run by private proprietors, churches, etc.	• Use of several centers throughout the community may be more convenient to parents. • Contracting with an already existing center eliminates start-up costs, capital expenditures; no delay in initiating services. • Project administrators will not have to manage day-to-day operations of center.	• Hours of operation may not be negotiable; may not meet parents' school or training schedule. • Center schedule may not accommodate part-time or irregular attendance. • Few centers provide infant care. • Staff may be unwilling to or unskilled in working with teen clients. • Tuition may be costly. • A center may not have more than a few openings at any given time, and would not be able to expand easily. • New Futures will have little control over staff, budget or quality.

CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL	ADVANTAGES FOR NEW FUTURES PROJECTS	LIMITATIONS/CONSIDERATIONS
b. Subsidized Centers Facilities which receive funds directly from state or other agency or business to subsidize or underwrite some costs of care.	• Low or no fees are charged to eligible families. (No cost to New Futures) • Generally, funding sources mandate and monitor adherence to high standards of quality and accountability. • Most subsidized centers encourage parent participation. • Subsidies' funding sources may be open to collaboration with New Futures, to implement desired program-specific policy and services.	• Programs may not be able to accept families who receive vendor payment subsidies. (See below.) • Many of the same limitations of private centers (see above) also apply here. • These programs may not be available in every community. • Eligibility requirements are usually based on income, and are usually strictly upheld. • Waiting lists may be very long. • Programs may be inflexible in adapting service to new populations because of funding guidelines.
c. Campus Centers Child care centers operated on a college campus, primarily for children of faculty and students; often used as a lab school.	• Usually administered by professional university-level Early Childhood instructors, with high standards of quality, and experience in relating to teen students. • Center administrators are apt to be enthusiastic about and innovative in serving a new population. • Staff is likely to have significant ability to provide parents with information on sound principles of child development and parenting, to screen and observe child's development and parent/child interactions, and to implement intervention strategies. • Teen parents are provided an opportunity to informally experience the college environment.	• These centers are not available in every community. • Program is usually limited in size and hours of operation. • Centers may be geographically inaccessible to many participants.

CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL	ADVANTAGES FOR NEW FUTURES PROJECTS	LIMITATIONS/CONSIDERATIONS
d. Headstart A federally-funded early childhood program serving low-income children and families.	• All services are free to income-eligible families. • Comprehensive health and social services are mandated for enrolled children. • Program involvement, training, and comprehensive social services are available for parents. • 10% of program enrollment slots are set aside for children with handicapping conditions. • Centers are usually located in the low-income community. • Staff has extensive experience working with very young and very poor families.	• Most programs operate only half day. • Enrollment is limited and there may be waiting lists. • Eligibility is based on income and strictly upheld. • Emphasis on parent involvement may interfere or compete with student's school and training schedule. • Few Head Start programs are able to serve children under three years of age.
2. FAMILY DAY CARE HOME Private home in which the resident provides child care to a small group of children.	• Costs to recruit and establish additional homes are minimal. • Licensing or registration is usually less complicated than for centers. • Homes can easily accomodate a wide range of ages among children. • FDC providers often develop friendship with the parents who use their services; this can be an avenue of additional source of support for teens. • Usually serve smaller number of children than a center, providing a more family-like environment and less distraction for children.	• Quality of care can vary greatly among FDCH providers. • Individual providers may not wish to deal with subsidized families or third party payments. • Coordination with several care providers may be time consuming and cumbersome. • Some providers may not want added responsibility of participating in support groups, attending training, or working with Project case managers on a regular basis. • Availability of care directly effected if provider gets ill or moves, or is unsatisfactory.

CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL	ADVANTAGES FOR NEW FUTURES PROJECTS	LIMITATIONS/CONSIDERATIONS
a. Center with Satellite Homes Combination of a center and a few day care homes, under a single administrative staff.	• This combination can offer greatest flexibility in hours of service, ages served, and response to different needs of children. • Services can be easily expanded by increasing the number of homes connected to the center. • Center administration maintains quality control and supports home providers.	
3. VENDOR PAYMENT **Subsidy funding which pays for child care provided to eligible families, either through direct payments to providers or reimbursement to families.**	• Parents can choose among many types of care available: (e.g., family or friends, center, or family day care homes). • Change in child care arrangements can be flexibly accomodated. • Child care is paid by subsidy program for income-eligible parents. • Start up costs are minimal. • Design of program can allow for full or partial child care payment. • May be developed to serve the employees of a sponsoring business as well as New Futures teen parents. • Can serve more families than a single center. • The system relies on parents to find their own child care thus having no space limits on the number of children who can be served.	• Careful administrative and extensive record-keeping is required to accurately track attendance, eligibility, and payments. • The parent must find her own care. • There is no central control over standards of quality in the care or equitable service delivery. • Parent education observations would not be possible. • There is no guarantee that providers will understand or support the teen parent in relation to New Futures goals. • It is more difficult to create connections between child care providers and other community resources.

CHILD CARE SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL	ADVANTAGES FOR NEW FUTURES PROJECTS	LIMITATIONS/CONSIDERATIONS
4. RESOURCE AND REFERRAL Programs/agencies which provide information and counseling about the range and availability of child care services within a specific service area.	● Services may be provided through independently established local Child Care Resource and Refferal agencies at reasonable cost. ● Parents are assisted to find appropriate care, provided counseling re: choosing good quality care, and encouraged to decide for themselves. ● Information is available regarding all child care services existing locally, including subsidized child care programs for low-income families. ● Can easily be linked with a child care resource development project or a vendor payment program.	● This service does not provide or pay for child care. ● There is no guarantee that appropriate care can be found for every parent. ● There is no control over quality of care (beyond licensing) or the suitability of care for the New Futures student.

NATIONAL TOLL-FREE NUMBERS

AMC Cancer Information Center
- 800-525-3777

American Cleft Palate Educational Foundation - Cleftline
- 800-24-CLEFT
Center in Pennsylvania
- 800-23-CLEFT

American Council of the Blind
- 800-424-8666

American Kidney Fund
- 800-638-8299

Association of Heart Patients - Heart Line
- 800-241-6993

Better Hearing Institute - Hearing Helpline
- 800-424-8576

Cancer Information Service - National Line
- 800-4-CANCER

Center for Special Education - Technology
- 800-345-TECH
Center in Northern Virginia
- 703-750-0500

Cystic Fibrosis Information
- 301-881-9130

Educators Publishing Service, Inc.
Specific Language Disabilities (Dyslexia)
- 800-225-5750
Center in Massachusetts
- 800-792-5166

Epilepsy Information Line
- 800-426-0660

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Career and Vocational Education
- 800-848-4815

Helen Keller International
- 212-620-2100

International Shriners Headquarters
- 800-237-5055

Job Opportunities for the Blind (JOB)
- 800-638-7518

Lung Line (lung disorders, allergies)
- 800-222-LUNG

National Association for Hearing and Speech Action
- 800-638-TALK (Voice or TDD)

National Center for Stuttering
- 800-221-2483

National Crisis Center for the Deaf Center in Virginia
- 800-446-9876
- 800-552-3723

National Cystic Fibrosis Foundation
- 800-344-4823

National Downs Syndrome Society
- 800-221-4602

National Easter Seal Society
- 800-221-6827

National Health Information Clearinghouse
- 800-336-4797

National Hearing Aid Society
- 800-521-5247

National Information Center for Educational Media
- 800-421-8711

National Organization on Disability
- 800-248-ABLE

National Special Needs Center
- 800-233-1222
- 800-833-3232 (TDD)

National Spinal Cord Injury Hotline
- 800-526-3456

National Tuberous Sclerosis Assn., Inc.
- 800-CAL-NTSA

Occupational Hearing Services (O.H.S.)
- 800-222-EARS

Orton Dyslexia Society
- 800-222-3123

RP Foundation Fighting Blindness
- 800-638-2300

Spina Bifida Hotline
- 800-621-3141

Tripod-Service for Hearing Impaired
- 800-352-8888

ABLEDATA
National Rehabilitation Information Center (NARIC)
The Catholic University of America
4407 Eighth Street, N.E.
Washington, DC 20017
(202) 635-5826
800-34-NARIC (provides information on equipment for persons with disabilities)

American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES)
Western Washington University
359 Miller Hall
Bellingham, WA 98225
(206) 676-3576

Children's Defense Fund
122 C Street, N.W., Suite 400
Washington, DC 20001
(201) 628-8787

Community Integration Project
The Center on Human Policy
Syracuse University
123 College Place
Syracuse, NY 13244-4130
(315) 423-3851

Department of Health and Human Services
Administration on Developmental Disabilities
Hubert Humphrey Building, Room 348F
200 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington, DC 20201
(202) 245-2890

Higher Education and the Handicapped (HEATH)
One Dupont Circle, N.W. Suite 670
Washington, DC 20036-1193
(202) 939-9320
800-54-HEATH (provides information on transition, higher education, and post-secondary programs)

Job Accomodation Network (JAN)
Box 468
Morgantown, WV 26505
1-800-526-7234
1-800-526-4698 (in WV)

PUBLICATIONS

The following are national publications that deal with a variety of disability issues.

DISABILITY RAG

Advocado Press
P.O. Box 145
Louisville, KY 40201
(Published Bi-monthly)

Articles about disabilities and up-to-date information on independent living.

DISABLED USA

President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped
111 20th Street, N.W., 6th Fl.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(Published Monthly)

Reports progress in opportunities for people with disabilities and developments in rehabilitation employment.

THE EXCEPTIONAL PARENT

The Exceptional Parent
605 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, MA 02215
(Published eight times yearly)

Emphasis on education, diagnosis, attitudes, and care. Addresses all handicaps, and is directed toward parents and professionals.

NETWORK NEWS

National Network of Parent Centers
312 Stuart Street, 2nd Floor
Boston, MA 02116
(Published Quarterly)

Information on educational advocacy issues and topics of concern to leaders of parent centers.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

(Note: An extensive Bibliography is included in *In School Together* which accompanies this guide. The following references focus on children with special needs).

I. MAINSTREAMING

Making Integration Work - A Teacher's Perspective
by Marilyn Price and Nessa Weinberg
- Questions and answers from teachers for integrating handicapped children in preschool programs

In The Middle
by Bea Gold, Karole Ready, Trish Kertes, Maureen Griffin and Julia Herwig
- Guide for training preschool teachers and parents about mainstreaming preschool children with physical disabilities; includes 28-minute film and series of video tapes

New Friends
by Chapel Hill Training Outreach Project
- Mainstreaming activities to help young children understand and accept individual differences

Hand in Hand - A Teacher's Guide to Preschool Mainstreaming
by Barbara Arenson and Beth Hannaman
- Discusses handicapping conditions, social integration, and parental needs and concerns.

Pathways Towards Integrating Young Handicapped Children
edited by Nancy Carlson and Mary Wandschneider, 1979

Activities for Children with Special Need, Humanizing Health Care for Children and Their Families
by Association for the Care of Children's Health, 1986
- Practical pamphlet which sees play as central to early childhood development; assists parents, teachers, and hospital staff to individualize appropriate activities.

Report Accompanying the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1986, P.L. 99-457
by Gilherron, Hilliard, Schrag and Shonkoff, 1987
- Detailed report which provides excellent background for professionals concerned with the federal law and its amendments and their effect on services for preschool children with disabilities and their families.

II. PROGRAM PLANNING

Children With Special Problems: A Manual For Day Care Centers
edited by Marilyn Dashe, Greater Minneapolis Day Care Association
- Guidelines for child care providers on placement and services for children with handicaps

Growth and Development of a Child with a Handicap
by Bea Gold, Toni Mulherin, Ellen Lind and Eleanor Lynch
Child, Youth and Family Services.
- Information for college early childhood instructors about children with handicaps; integrated into a general child development curriculum

Neighbor Care-Training Manual, February, 1987
- For family day care home providers; begins with assessment of skills; includes a learning plan for follow-up and supervision.

When You Care for Handicapped Children
Texas Department of Human Resources, 1983
- Designed for home and center providers; easy to read with practical suggestions.

National Directory of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies, 1987
- Addresses and telephone numbers, geographically listed; Twenty services of the Resource and Referral system are coded for quick cross-reference.

III. PARENTS AND FAMILY

Families of Children with Special Needs - Early Intervention Techniques for the Practitioner
by Allen A. Moni, 1983
- Looks at families with children with a variety of handicapping conditions; defines, cites evidence from research, and names models for developing family education programs.

Parent Group Guide Topics for Families of Young Children with Handicaps
edited by Elizabeth F. Gerlock
- Topics and discussion questions for parent groups from the Family, Infant and Toddler Project including family issues, child development, and teaching issues.

Parent-making: A Practical Handbook for Teaching Parent Classes About Babies and Toddlers
by B. Annye Rothenberg, Ph.D., Sandra Hitchcock, Mary Lou Harrison, and Melinda Graham
- Discusses techniques for organizing and effecting parenting groups; includes handouts for parents.

Minimizing High-Risk Parenting
edited by Valerie J. Sasserath, Ph.D.
- A review of what is known about high-risk parenting and consideration of appropriate prevention and intervention

HELP-When the Parent is Handicapped
by Stephanie Parks, 1984
- Addresses the needs retarded parents; provides techniques and strategies to teach parenting skills to retarded parents.

Make Every Step Count-Birth to One Year - Developmental Parent Guide
by Stephanie Parks, 1986
- Provides information and techniques for in-home infant stimulation programs. Emphasizes the interactive relationship between parent and infant and well as the action and experience of the infant.

Dear Mom and Dad: A Baby's Letters to Her Parents
by Ann Lacy, 1981
- Letters addressed to parents emphasizing total development.

IV. SPECIFIC HANDICAPS

Newborns at Risk, Medical Care and Psychoeducational Intervention
by Gail L. Ensher and David A. Clark

Children with Handicaps - A Medical Primer
by Mark L. Batshaw, M.D. and Yvonne M. Perret
- Information on hereditary abnormalities, prenatal diagnosis, handicapping conditions, and caring for the child with special needs.

A Practical Guide to Solving Preschool Behavior Problems
by Eva Essa
- Techniques for specific behavior problems

Mainstreaming Preschoolers: (needs publishing info)

1. Children with Mental Retardation
2. Children with Speech and Language Impairments
3. Children with Visual Handicaps
4. Children with Learning Disabilities
5. Children with Health Impairments
6. Children with Hearing Impairments
7. Children with Emotional Disturbance
8. Children with Orthopedic Handicaps

- Each manual discusses mainstreaming, defines the impairment and gives suggestions for specific activities; written for Head Start teaching staff and parents.

Feeding the Child with a Handicap
Childrens Bureau, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, 1987
- Small pamphlet addressed to parents and professionals; clear line drawings illustrate techniques for feeding young children, the use of special feeding tools; includes suggestions for planning well-balanced menus

M.O.R.E. - Family Service of San Francisco Training Manual for Teachers of Young Children - For Staff Serving Disabled and Non-Disabled Children
by Trudy Latzko, editor
- Incorporates extensive experience of staff specialists in dealing with the stress of handicapped and non-handicapped families; emphasizes a developmental point of view. A list of common observational categories is suggested; stresses the use of formal and informal assessment approaches.

Picturing Development - HDS
- Picture book of development for both parents and providers

Group Care for Young Children - Considerations for Child Care and Health Professionals, Public Policy Makers and Parents
edited by Nina Gunzenhauser and Bettye M. Caldwell, 1986
- Series of articles in pamphlet-form; presents child care as a support service to families in distress and otherwise; discusses family development, child care, and child abuse.

Competent Caregivers - Competent Children Training and Education for Child Care Providers
edited by Karen VanderVen and Ethel Tittnich, 1985
- Historic overview looking at evolution of good caretaking and caregiving has from babysitting to professional status; organized into four sections: overview, context of training, reaching the learner (and the delivery process); and the caregiver's place in the society

Early Intervention for Handicapped and At Risk Children
by Nancy L. Peterson
- Overview of early childhood special education; concrete classroom activities, goals, and dignostic methods.

THE ROLE OF INCENTIVES IN PROGRAMS TO HELP AT-RISK YOUTH

Paper Prepared for the
Annie E. Casey Foundation's
New futures Project

by
Jack A. Meyer
New Directions for Policy
Washington, D.C.

November 1987

Introduction

There is a growing consensus that the prospects for success among at-risk youth in the U.S. hinge not only on acquiring the basic skills that equip them for further education and the world of work, but also on having positive incentives that encourage them to utilize the skills. Yet, there is little common agreement on what is meant by the term "incentives," or on how they work -- or don't work -- to change behavior.

This paper begins to develop an operational definition of incentives in social policy. It presents, in summary form, some of the key findings and conclusions from the growing body of research, demonstrations, and evaluations pertaining to improving the prospects of disadvantaged youth. It also provides a taxonomy of the different types of incentives developing around the country in different settings, as well as thumbnail sketches of selected public and private sector models that show promise. Finally, the paper raises some issues surrounding the use of incentives to foster social objectives, to help focus attention on the kinds of questions that need to be addressed in order to breathe life into what might otherwise appear to be an abstract concept.

This paper is designed to open a dialogue with and provide some preliminary information to the ten sites around the country that are in the planning phase of the New Futures program, a major new initiative to help at-risk youth launched by the Annie E. Casey Foundation. Coupled with a series of telephone interviews with site coordinators, it is intended to help sites as they develop their thinking about the role of incentives in improving the prospects of these youth for staying in school and gaining entry to the workplace.

Conceptual Framework

Incentives cannot be defined or conceptualized in the abstract, but must be placed in a context of human values and motivation. They can be viewed as "offers" to which individuals are invited to respond. Whether people do respond, however, depends on their attitudes, aspirations, and values. An offer of a job or a college education to a youth who does not value these goals or feel inclined to pursue them may satisfy some theoretical notion of an incentive, but it does not constitute a working definition.

The distinction between the incentive and the motivation that produces a response to it is critical. An offer -- of a job or money or an education -- remains just that until it is accepted, and it is unlikely to be accepted unless it connects with a youth's own goals or desires in life. Failure to comprehend this relationship has led many well-intentioned policy reforms down a path of dashed hopes, as the desired or expected responses prove to be elusive.

The kinds of incentives that are likely to work are those that are placed within a supportive culture that reinforces the values to which they are linked, and combined with efforts to enhance the knowledge and skills of youth. Incentives can work, but they do not work in a vacuum. They must be combined with commensurate efforts to change attitudes, institutions, and the economic and social policy environment.

Incentives for at-risk youth range from those aimed at the youth themselves, to those involving parents and community leaders, and others geared toward teachers, school administrators, and social service workers. Some offer monetary rewards; others provide in-kind inducements. Some initiatives require public policy reforms; others depend on private leadership or a public/private partnership.

Some of the newest initiatives feature incentives in the form of financial help with the expenses of higher education for students who stay in school or improve their academic achievement. Other new initiatives involve employers' commitments of jobs for those who successfully complete their schooling and manifest competence in basic skills. These arrangements constitute a kind of reciprocal social compact between the student and the community. Society sends a signal that if youth exert the effort and display the motivation to complete school and prepare themselves for further study or for the world of work, it will help assure that this effort translates into real opportunity.

Indeed, the concept of opportunity provides a vital link between the components of a successful strategy for helping youth. As a society, we need to invest in creating opportunities. Investments in human capital are the necessary complement to investments in physical capital that help to modernize our plant and equipment. Taken together, these investments can enhance the competitive position of our economy and help assure that our youth participate in the mainstream of economic and social life. Enchancing opportunity for at-risk youth requires building their basic skills, breaking down barriers such as discrimination that block them from taking advantage of opportunity, and fostering the motivation to seize that opportunity.

Examples of Different Types of Incentives

This section provides some very brief sketches of selected new incentives-based programs cropping up around the country. The reader will undoubtedly think of many more, particularly in his or her own community. The attempt here is to be illustrative, not exhaustive.

Incentives for Students

A variety of incentives for students to stay in school are emerging in the U.S., most of them in either the planning stage or the initial stages of development. Thus, it is a little early to make any definitive judgements about their impact.

Eugene Lang's Harlem Project

In 1981 New York City business leader Eugene Lang delivered the commencement address at East Harlem's Public School 121, which he had attended as a youth. In his remarks, Mr. Lang pledged to set up a tuition trust fund that would finance a four--year college education for each of the 61 sixth-grade graduates who completed high school. Twenty of them are now college freshmen, 20 are expected to graduate from high school in January 1988, 11 have left the U.S., and seven are employed; only three students have dropped out of school.

The Lang Project combines financial incentives for students with efforts to augment their basic skills and build their self-esteem. A project coordinator maintains continuous contact with the students and arranges for tutoring and other support services. Student activities are conducted in a community youth center. An effort is made to involve students directly in decision-making and to "empower" them to take control of their own lives.

The original project has evolved into the "I Have a Dream" Foundation. Nine new projects were started in New York City involving about 500 students; local organizations are being formed in 20 other cities around the country to initiate similar projects.

Grand View College

In Iowa, Garten Elementary School and Grand View College have joined together to form an "Adopt a School" program. Grand

View College provides each fifth grade student at Garten Elementary an initial scholarship of $500. Each year thereafter, the college will add another $100, so that pupils who finish high school will have at least $1,200 saved for college. The scholarship can only be used at Grand View College, which is also providing a mentor for each student.

The Kroger Company

In December 1986 the Kroger Company announced a "partnership in education" program with Washington Park Elementary School in Cincinnati, Ohio beginning in the fall of 1987. All students at this elementary school who make good grades, maintain good attendance, and are good "student citizens" achieve "superstar" status. If this is accomplished for two or more years, the youth becomes eligible for prizes ranging from free food to cash awards that are saved for college tuition. A student who is a full-year superstar throughout grades 1-6 could have a college tuition trust fund of $14,000 upon completing elementary school.

Incentives for Teachers and Other School-Based Reforms

In addition to a variety of programs offering incentives to students to remain in school, there is also growing interest in providing incentives for teachers to improve their performance -- thereby helping to raise their students' performance. These initiatives involve new methods of paying teachers that tie career advancement more to favorable performance evaluations and less to tenure. They also involve changes in the structure of the school -- the classroom, teaching methods, educational strategies, and extracurricular activities. The latter changes reflect a growing feeling that school-based, "bottom-up" reforms need to supplant the traditional system-wide, top-down approach, with local schools and individual teachers given much more freedom to innovate and deviate from rigid organizational norms.

The Charlotte-Mecklenburg Plan

The city of Charlotte, North Carolina has developed a multi-part plan that combines teacher training and evaluation with key changes in tenure and job assignments. A five-stage career ladder raises teachers' salaries in line with changes in their responsibilities and assignments. They may receive tenure after a three-to six year period of mandatory participation in the career-ladder program.

Dade County, Florida

In the Miami, Florida area, twenty elementary, middle, and secondary schools and nine magnet schools are participating in a new four-year project in school-based management. The Dade County initiative has a learning-centered curriculum tailored to varied student needs and features budget decentralization, curriculum and program planning, and collegial decision-making at the level of the individual school.

North Lawndale, Ilinois

A group of Chicago-area business leaders plans to develop a privately-funded school and manage it like a business. The new school is scheduled to begin serving 120 local residents in the spring of 1988, and will be funded by 16 Chicago corporations that have already pledged $2 million. The school would pay teachers' salaries well above the public school level, promote greater parental participation, and integrate itself with a wide range of neighborhood social service programs.

Louisville, Kentucky

The Noe Middle School in Louisville, Kentucky has implemented the important concept of decentralization through converting to seven semi-autonomous schools within the regular school. Each unit has about 150 students and an interdisciplinary team of six to eight teachers; some of the units combine sixth, seventh, and eigthth graders. Teaching teams in Noe, a "school without walls," have considerable flexibility in designing the curriculum for their groups, allowing for independent learning tailored to the different needs of students.

Atlanta, Georgia

Atlanta's Rich's Academy provides an alternative school setting for approximately 100 public school students who are facing trouble academically. The students are referred to the Academy by other high schools, the courts, and social service agencies. Some students, however, approach the alternative school voluntarily. The Atlanta business community is providing the funding for this school.

Boston, Massachusetts

The John Hancock Company has established a relationship with English High School in Boston, which had a very poor academic reputation. About 30 Hancock employees participate in a tutoring program once a week, and others serve as mentors to juniors and seniors, providing counseling on college applications and career guidance. The company also donated an architect and a space planner to assist with building renovation, and helped the school prepare for its accreditation review. Finally, the Hancock "Have a Heart" program provides grants to teachers for innovative instruction in physical education and in the arts and cultural enrichment for middle schools.

Other new Massachusetts programs include grants to teachers to develop innovative programs for their schools, as well as grants and sabbaticals enabling teachers to provide in-service workshops for other teachers around the state or to spend a year working for the state department of education.

Initiatives to Smooth the Transition from School to Work

A variety of programs designed to provide youth with employment experience, knowledge of the world of work, and job search and placement assistance show promise.

STEP

The Summer Training and Education Program (STEP) was designed by Public/Private Ventures to increase the basic skills of 14-16 year-old youth and reduce dropout and teenage pregnancy rates. These goals are pursued by teaching remedial and life skills, and by offering work experience during two consecutive and intensive summer programs. Four-year demonstrations began in 1985 in Boston, Fresno, San Diego, Seattle, and Portland, Oregon. Preliminary evidence suggests that the combination of part-time jobs at the minimum wage, individually-paced remedial assistance, and counseling about social and sexual behavior is beginning to stem the "summer loss" phenomenon that can undo progress achieved during the school year.

The Bridge Project

The Bridge Project is a prevention effort featuring remedial instruction for disadvantaged ninth and tenth graders who are at least two years behind in reading and math, but are not below fourth grade standards. With the support of the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation, this project was launched in Hartford and will start soon in Flint, Michigan, Seattle, San Mateo County, California, and South Bend, Indiana.

Jobs for America's Graduates

Jobs for America's Graduates was established in Delaware in 1980, and is now operating in eight states. It teaches "employability skills" to youth with academic problems beginning in their junior year in high school, offers them job placement assistance, and otherwise tries to help them achieve a positive "outcome" after graduation -- a job, military service, or higher education.

70001

70001 Training and Employment Institute is a national nonprofit organization that has provided pre-employment training, remedial education, and job placement help to high school dropouts since 1976 -- and has placed more than 20,000 of them in unsubsidized private sector employment. More recently, 70001 has begun applying its motivational/educational/training model to the task of preventing youth from dropping out of school in the first place. This program emphasizes self-esteem and motivation as important accompaniments to basic skills.

The Boston Compact

The Boston Compact is an agreement among business, education, and community leaders to improve students' educational performance and reduce the dropout rate in exchange for promising them jobs in the private sector. The significance of this initiative is the implicit social contract created between the private sector and the schools -- and the youth that attend them. The message sent to the schools is this: if you do a better job turning out an educated, job-ready student, we'll do our part to find a job for that student. Thus, the incentive here is a job -- a form of in-kind aid, compared with the cash tuition grant used elsewhere.

Some General Conclusions

While generalizations are always risky, we present the following highlights of our findings from a review of programs aimed at disadvantaged youth. This review includes not only the incentives-based initiatives described in this paper, but also a wide array of programs aimed at improving the basic skills, self-esteem, and motivation of youth, as well as smoothing their transition from school to work.

* A breakthrough against the troubling problems of school dropouts, teenage pregnancy, and youth unemployment is unlikely to emerge from a single intervention alone. There are no "magic bullets";

* What is needed instead is an integrated, comprehensive approach that establishes continuity and linkages among a series of related steps. These steps should begin with early interventions to avert problems rather than awaiting signs of trouble.

* A good case can be made for public and private sector investments that begin with adequate pre-natal care, primary health care for young children, and effective early childhood education. Adequate day care arrangements are also important to the early years of a child's life.

* From the perspective of the New Futures program, the critically important stage is the middle school years. Successful efforts to motivate youth to stay in school and learn in school, coupled with reliable counseling an information about sexual activity and its consequences, can make a real difference in the lives of 10-14 year old youth. The involvement of parents and peers along with school teachers and administrators and social service providers is vital to the reinforcement of personal goals and aspirations.

* Such efforts should be followed by corresponding initiatives in the high school years to keep youth in school, enhance their basic skills, improve their knowledge of the world of work, and provide either job search assistance or incentives for them to attend college.

* There is a premium today on developing good general skills, as opposed to getting specific training or learning specific trades in the teenage years. Reading comprehension, math skills, computer literacy, and language training are important ingredients in the recipe for success in the world of

higher education or the competitive job market. Social and personal skills are also important in an increasingly service-oriented economy.

* Government employment and training programs have changed a lot in recent years. They are more decentralized, and funding is targeted more precisely to providing job search assistance and training for the disadvantaged. Such aid is more frequently coupled with work requirements for young welfare mothers and heightened efforts to track down and extract child support payments from absent fathers. Stipends to support youth in training have largely dried up, and public service jobs are no longer funded by the federal government.

* State and local governments have developed many innovative work and training programs designed to reduce welfare dependency among youth and adults and to open up job opportunities, A growing body of information suggests that many of these efforts are beginning to achieve positive results. Net benefits are often rather small, particularly at first, and some groups in need benefit more than others. There is a real danger that "cream-skimming" will result from the wrong kind of incentives -- those that use a scorecard approach that fosters high success rates in part by steering clear of those youth who are hardest to serve and most in need. There is evidence that work and training programs have their highest eventual payoff with those hardest to serve.

* Success rarely occurs overnight, as there is a substantial learning curve in most social programs. Good management and reliable data systems, which require substantial up-front investments, are critical to success and take considerable time to develop.

* The private sector is much more actively involved in developing new initiatives for at-risk youth than many realize. Businesses and foundations are seeding the development of school-based reforms as well as job-readiness measures and efforts to smooth the transition from school to work. Nonprofit voluntary organizations are assisting disadvantaged Americans of all ages.

NEW FUTURES STATE POLICY PAPER

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New Futures State Policy Paper

This paper is intended as a supplement to the New Futures Strategic Planning Guide. As with the supplement on child care issues, it has been developed as a further explanation of materials set forth in the Strategic Planning Guide. It does not supersede or replace the Guide; it seeks to refine and expand its presentation of a useful framework for New Futures planning.

As made clear in the scoring of the Application Instructions and the Strategic Planning Guide, the Foundation will be giving significant weight to state support for New Futures plans in its final selection of the communities to receive operational funding. State governments have an increasing responsibility for developing policies and administering programs serving disadvantaged youth and thus should play a major role in the planning and implementation of a local New Futures program.

New Futures builds in a strong role for states in the planning and operations of a comprehensive community plan to assist youth at risk of becoming unproductive adults. With the help of appropriate state officials, each New Futures team needs to develop its own "state agenda": the full range of support they might request from or negotiate with their states in developing their long term plans. The Foundation is indebted to staff of the National Governor's Association Center for Policy Research for their assistance in developing the outline for this paper. NGA's recent publication Bringing Down the Barriers reflects the work of five task forces charged with reducing the widespread problems of poverty in America. This publication will be of great value to New Futures planning cities, so a copy is enclosed with this supplementary paper. Many of the examples mentioned in this supplement are described at greater length in the NGA publication.

Although communities involved in a New Futures plan should recognize that all possible elements of the state role cannot be negotiated in full by the January 15th deadline for proposal submission, it is crucial to begin a broad-based negotiation process as soon as possible. In each planning process, communities should take advantage of such action-forcing events as the state budget planning cycle, which intensifies in the fall and winter months in most of the New Futures states. Planners should work with all appropriate state agency representatives as well as their legislative delegations to make them aware of the priorities which have emerged from the planning process. Communities would do well to list two types of items:

1. Those activities which would be their highest targets of opportunity before January 15th as well as

2. Those items on which negotiations will be longer term or multi-year, especially where redeployment of funds, institutional changes in state funding priorities, and other policy changes are concerned.

3. Has the state begun to select redeployment targets for the federal and state funds now used to assist cities in serving at-risk youth? How do those targets for redeployment affect the local New Futures targets for institutional changes?

4. Has the state developed cash or other incentives for youth to stay in school, in the form of scholarships, guaranteed jobs, or incentives for schools to keep youth in school and improve their performance or for performance of agencies serving youth?

5. Has the state developed procedures by which special groups such as youths with disabilities, youth in the child welfare system, or youth in the juvenile justice system can be served on a case-managed basis by agencies outside those systems? Do such youth have special eligibility for jobs or other programs?

6. Has the state developed a children/youth budget that reviews the state spending patterns that affect children and youth? Have advocacy groups developed such budgets? What has the state's response to them been?

7. How does the state define at-risk youth?

8. Has the state begun to address the replication of New Futures programs in other cities? Is there a state plan for disseminating the benefits of New Futures to a statewide constituency of other cities and agencies?

Technical Assistance

Most state governmental departments have a long history of providing local communities with a variety of technical assistance opportunities. It is a role with which state government is familiar and comfortable. State staff are used to providing workshops for communities, professionals, and interested citizens. They are trained to provide information on local and state programs. For a New Futures initiative to work, however, the ten local planning communities will need to ask their state governments to go beyond business as usual in providing help in new ways. New Futures communities should consider requesting help as reflected in the following questions:

1. Does the state use its data on youth indicators such as joblessness or teen pregnancy rates to inform local agencies of the needs of youth? Is the state willing to speed up the dissemination of such data, break out data from local jurisdictions where they are not now available, and utilize data such as JTPA placements which has been aggregated and not provided to local agencies for analysis?

2. Can/will the state provide local planning teams with updated inventories of all state funding for local programs to at-risk

youth, and methods for keeping such information current?

3. Has the state designated state staff to play a role on the New Futures planning teams? Have district, agency and program staffs been made available for technical assistance to local planning teams?

Organizational Changes

In addition to technical assistance roles, states can help local planning teams by making comprehensible a bewildering set of state agencies, and by developing new working relationships with local teams. The appropriate questions in this area include:

1. Can/will the state appoint a single contact point for local planning groups?

2. Has the state established a human services cabinet or a sub-cabinet committee for youth issues which serves as an interagency policymaking mechanism for youth issues? Has that group developed a specific agenda yet?

3. Have interagency agreements been developed around youth issues which affect local planning efforts?

4. Have district offices and staffs of state human services agencies developed effective working relationships that assist in making local case management possible?

Conclusion

These examples and categories are far from exhaustive. They are intended to provide a framework for local innovation in developing a genuine "state agenda" -- a strategic list of items which the state can provide in support of New Futures. these items go beyond pro forma letters of endorsement from state agencies and elected officials to demonstrate that specific state support has been secured by the New Futures communities. New Futures planners are encouraged to seek out information on models of state support for local programs to help at risk youth, from the National Governors Association, regional and statewide groups of state elected officials, and the national groups which work with specific state agencies such as the Chief State School Officers, the Education Commission of the States, and the American Public Welfare Association. The Foundation stands ready to provide any appropriate technical assistance in assisting local planning teams with information on other state models.

Framework for Aid

State government should be expected to play as broad a role in a New Futures effort as would be expected of any other major actor in the community plan. States can be active in New Futures efforts in four primary ways:

1. by providing financial assistance
2. by acting to remove policy and funding barriers to effective programs, and
3. by providing technical assistance to New Futures cities during planning and implementation
4. by changing the state's own organizational structures and processes to permit better communications and coordination with local programs.

Financial Aid

Financial assistance can take the form of (1) formula changes, (2) tax expenditures, and (3) incentive funds as well as (4) the more traditional budget line items, (5) block grants, and (6) planning grants. The diversity of these items should make clear that a single new line item, while indicating the state's interest in a New Futures plan, merely scratches the surface of what a state's full financial support could entail. Obviously, financial support from a stat will vary according to the state's fiscal health, the political cycle, and other variables unique to that state.

Some of the questions that a state and local planning team can review in preparing the state element of the local plan include:

1. How do current funding formulas reward cities, school districts, or other recipients for working effectively with at-risk youth? Do current formulas decrease funding when fewer at-risk youth are in the school system, for example, and how does such a disincentive for working with at risk youth affect local programs?

2. Does the state use performance contracting, competency standards, or other performance standards as a means of increasing state and local accountability for helping youth?

3. Are there changes in state funding patterns which would reward interim accomplishment of goals set under New Futures, e.g., daily attendance figures instead of annual attendance measured once a year?

4. Are there tax provisions which reward or penalize public agencies or private firms which help at-risk youth?

5. Has the state begun combining separate grants into block grants for broad purposes such as dropout prevention, teen pregnancy prevention, or jobs for youth?

6. Has the state developed planning grants to assist in funding staff needed for New Futures at the local level? Has the state provided in-kind aid which has the same function?

Policy Changes

Because the problems of at-risk youth are interrelated, state roles and responsibilities should go beyond a mere line item approach to isolated programs. Teen pregnancy accounts for a high percentage of school dropouts. Dropouts have the greatest problems in the youth employment market. These problems, despite having separate labels, are experienced by young people in overlapping ways.

Yet state agencies are no different from local agencies, in that they usually deal with a single youth problem, rather than working across agency lines to treat all of the inter-related problems. If the problems are inter-related, so should the solutions be inter-related. But state and local agencies that provide overlapping services to multi-problem youth are part of the policy barriers blocking unified action, and state policy can do much to remove those barriers.

Many of those solutions must begin with the commitment of the Governor and other high state officials. Local communities will not be able to successfully coordinate their city's response to the challenge of New Futures without substantial assistance from the policy-making, as well as the financial centers of power in state government.

Some of the most important questions that state and local staffs can discuss in negotiating state policy roles in New Futures include:

1. Has state funding policy been reviewed to determine how resources can be shifted from treatment to prevention approaches?

2. Has the state developed procedures by which data can be collected on individual clients, consistent with their privacy laws and informed consent, so that followup of youth can be

carried out two years after placement or departure from school? Has the state addressed ways in which confidentiality policies can be reconciled with the need to work with youth across more than one agency?

2. Does the state use performance contracting, competency standards, or other performance standards as a means of increasing state and local accountability for helping youth?

3. Are there changes in state funding patterns which would reward interim accomplishment of goals set under New Futures, e.g., daily attendance figures instead of annual attendance measured once a year.